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ABSTRACT

Initially, the committee whose members authored this monograph was commissioned to investigate the current thoughts and practices surrounding the certification of the curriculum worker. As evidenced by the papers contained here, the group's perspective broadened to include attention to the role, function, and preparation of the curriculum leader. Eugene Bartoo's paper presents a historical review and performs a conceptual housecleaning as he establishes a framework for guiding further analysis and for issuing recommendations by the working group. Allan Sturges presents and examines data about what state certification officials are thinking and are doing about curriculum leader certification. Allan Sturges and Veronica Kollar present information on competency-based preparation programs for curriculum workers. Donald J. Christensen examines the tasks, concerns, satisfactions, and career lines of the curriculum worker. A separate chapter presents the group's summaries and recommendations. The final chapter is an annotated bibliography. (Author/IRT)

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CURRICULUM LEADERS: IMPROVING THEIR INFLUENCE

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A Report from the ASCD Working Group on the Role, Function, and Preparation of the Curriculum Worker

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Preface

PHILIP L. HOSFORD

CURRICULUM changes. Instructional procedures change. They always have and always will. Frequently, those responsible for changes in curriculum and instruction are accused of negligence because of the slowness of change. Less often, they are berated for changes too hastily made. These extremes are diminishing, however, as the professional role and preparation of curriculum leaders become better defined.

Quality in curriculum leadership is currently provided by people competent in both supervision and curriculum development. ASCD is composed of just such people. We have consistently supported efforts to refine and professionalize the role of the curriculum leader and this book represents our latest effort in this cause.

Here, the history of our concern is traced from the ASCD 1946 Yearbook, *Leadership Through Supervision,* through the ASCD 1965 Yearbook, *Role of the Supervisor and Curriculum Director in a Climate of Change.* Results of current surveys indicating who we are and what we have been doing are reported. National interest in improving the preparation and certification of curriculum leaders is documented. Minimum standards are recommended for experience, preparation, and certification of the curriculum leader. The annotated bibliography is an integral part of the book and a valuable contribution to our field.

More important to me, however, is the sense obtained from reading the manuscript—a sense of where we have been and where we are going as curriculum leaders. If curriculum is the set of experiences planned to influence learners toward desired goals, and instruction is the *process* of influencing learners toward those goals, then the similarity of competencies for improving instruction and developing curriculum becomes clear. For example, continuous

curriculum development is essential if the supervisor is to be helpful to teachers and learners. Similarly, supervisory skills are essential in the conduct of modern curriculum development efforts. One function devoid of the other seems entirely inappropriate in a democratic education undertaking.

We now know that how we teach is at least as important as the selection of what we teach. The planned curriculum can be improved through continuous curriculum development facilitated by skillful supervision. The silent curriculum created in the process of instruction can be improved through supervision and continuous curriculum development. Supervisory and curriculum development skills are both necessary to facilitate change at the most appropriate time. Such a combination of knowledge and skills may evolve as the formal minimum requirement for all of us desiring to be known as curriculum leaders.

This book should accelerate that evolution.

PHILIP L. HOSFORD, *President 1976–77*
Association for Supervision
and Curriculum Development

THANKS IS EXTENDED to the chief state school officers and university professors for their cooperation in the preparation of the chapter on certification. Also, thanks is extended to the ASCD professors of curriculum who critiqued the bibliography; to the 500 curriculum workers who participated in the curriculum worker survey; and to the ASCD units, boards, and individuals who submitted possible competencies.

Special thanks is extended to Gerald Firth, Gary Griffin, Ben Harris, Richard Kimpston, Donald Myers, and Edmund Short for special treatment of the bibliography; to Socius, a social research firm based in Minnesota, for assisting in the preparation of the curriculum worker surveys; and to Myra Taub for her diligence in managing the necessary mailings and in typing the several drafts of the manuscript.

Final editing of the manuscript and publication of this booklet were the responsibility of Robert R. Leeper, Associate Director and Editor, ASCD publications. The production was handled by Elsa Angell with the assistance of Teola T. Jones and Polly Larson, with Nancy Olson as Production Manager. The cover and design of this booklet are by Michael J. Davis.

Foreword

CHARLES A. SPEIKER

A TRULY UPLIFTING EXPERIENCE for me since joining the ASCD staff has been the privilege of participating in and learning from the Working Group on the Role, Function, and Preparation of the Curriculum Worker. Members of this group have unselfishly attended to the charges given them by the Board of Directors of ASCD. They have also demonstrated their ability to blend their systematic and creative qualities in accomplishing the needed tasks and activities.

Initially, the group was commissioned to investigate the current thoughts and practices surrounding the certification of the curriculum worker. As evidenced by the papers contained in this monograph, the group's perspective has broadened to include attention to the role, function, and preparation of the curriculum leader.

Eugene Bartoo presents a historical review and performs a conceptual house cleaning. His paper is intended as the beginning of a framework for guiding further analysis and for issuing recommendations by the working group. The theoretical concerns contained in the Bartoo article suggest that greater attention should be given to the use of terminology and its clarification; and, that the development of any preparation program goes beyond the mere collection of what has been done or what is being done. It would be a flaw to argue that because something *is* being done it *ought* to be done. Similarly, it would be flawed argument to state that merely because certain opinions and perceptions suggest that something ought to be done, that that suggestion be implemented without a theoretical reference. A total overhaul of preparation programs based on sound principles and concepts including those tenets from the field of psychology could be proposed as a result of this paper and its implications.

Allan Sturges presents data to challenge our current practices.

After data are in hand on what state certification officials think about and are doing about curriculum leader certification, and after opinions from professors about the preparation and certification of the curriculum leader are gathered, then what? It may be that we must go back to the word "certification" and determine the *whys* and *whats* of certification. What are the assumptions behind the practice of certifying? Did certification develop from a now outdated control theory? Does certification still continue to serve in preparing the curriculum leader? What expertise was brought to bear when certification requirements were developed? Has anyone shown a connection between certification and ability to perform satisfactorily on the job? Is there a service to the curriculum leader beyond a ritual entrance and sanctioning ceremony? This chapter on certification will stimulate additional questions and investigation as well as clarify the present situation. A preliminary report of this study was included in the March 1975 issue of *Educational Leadership.*[1]

Chapter 3 by Allan Sturges and Veronica Kollar likewise provides a stimulus for numerous questions. The collection of "Competencies for Curriculum Workers" in its raw state alone (967 statements) provides material for further study. Moreover, the same questioning strategy that could be used in the certification issue could be used in the area of competencies. Certification need not imply "competence to do a job satisfactorily." Also, possessing certain competencies does not necessarily imply that a satisfactory job will be done. It could also be said that very few "competencies" are even stated in the raw data, depending on the definition of "competency" used. It may be that a great many professors are equating "behavioral or performance objectives" with "competency." It may be that one could only generate a *competency* based on certain theoretical formulations (which may have no relation to existing courses) and related to the actual functions, duties, tasks, activities, or needs of a particular district. One might call this approach a delicate combination of the notions "reality preparation" and "reality research and theory building." Then, to test the worth of a preparation program, one would possibly interview graduates on the job: finding out what they do, how they do it, and whether or not their preparation was of assistance. At the very least the results of the Sturges-Kollar efforts provide a ground for the generation of recommendations in Chapter 5.

[1] A. W. Sturges. "Certification of Curriculum Workers: Where Do We Stand?" *Educational Leadership* 32 (6): 398-400; March 1975.

An initial attempt at "reality research" was conducted by Donald J. Christensen, whose findings are presented in Chapter 4. These data, coupled with follow-up data collection activities and answers to some of the pertinent questions, could form the basis of a "sanctionable" program of preparation—sanctioned perhaps by a select group of professionals, external to a certification system. This is but one possible image of the future.

Chapter 5 is an attempt to answer the question, "So what?" After a yearlong study, members of the group decided that their recommendations were needed as to the role, function, preparation, and certification of the curriculum leader.

A review of the literature was initiated. This included the use of several descriptors, among which were: "curriculum," "curriculum research," and "curriculum development." The search of the literature of education included use of such sources as the ERIC file, dissertation abstracts, and general literary sources. The "Annotated Bibliography" in this document was prepared by Maenelle Dempsey with assistance from Lucy Dyer, a graduate student in Curriculum and Instruction at Georgia State University, Atlanta.

The annotated bibliography, in the writer's opinion, would have deserved to be published on its own merit. A comprehensively current search has apparently escaped the grasp of students interested in this area. This bibliography is sufficient in size and scope to be manageable and useful.

For the present, the monumental task of determining the current state of certification and preparation of the curriculum leader seems to be launched. Certainly, rigorous study and development will continue to be *relevant* rather than be lost to pessimism, skepticism, or faddism. This monograph represents the necessary first step toward the task of systematically understanding, studying, and improving the role, function, and preparation of the Curriculum Leader.

Introduction: The efforts of a working group

DONALD J. CHRISTENSEN, CHAIRPERSON

IN 1973, AN ASCD COMMITTEE began to study the preparation and certification of curriculum workers. The Executive Council recognized a need for continuing the investigation and in May 1974 established a working group to examine further the status of curriculum leaders' certification. Five persons were invited to serve on this working group. The committee was convened by Charles A. Speiker, Associate Director of ASCD, in October of that year in Columbus, Ohio.

At that two-day session a plan to assess the curriculum leaders' certification was formulated. That plan noted a rationale which asserted that before elements of certification could be recommended, there must be an understanding of what curriculum is, what curriculum leaders ought to do, what curriculum leaders presently do, a basis for curriculum and curriculum planning in educational philosophy, and an indication of the status of certification as it presently exists.

To address this plan, members of the committee agreed to undertake separate investigations which focused on:

1. The role, function, training, and attitudes of curriculum leaders
2. State department certification practices, and professors' views on the certification of curriculum leaders
3. Institutes', associations', and individuals' views on competencies of curriculum leaders
4. Research that addressed the preparation of curriculum leaders.

The total thrust of this project was a collective effort formulated by the working group. The format of the problem, the nuances of shaping the task, and its direction and focus were arrived at through group process. In addition to the October 1974 meeting, the working group met in December 1974 in Washington, D.C., at the ASCD offices, and in March 1975 during the Annual ASCD Conference in New Orleans.

Finally, in October of 1975, the group met in Alexandria, Virginia, to draw to a close their yearlong effort through the drafting of an initial set of recommendations and a position paper on the role of the curriculum leader.

It is to be noted that parts of this document were prepared by individual members of the working group, to address the task jointly identified by the total group. Accordingly, this document is a collection of individually prepared papers. The authors of these papers recognize the limitations of their studies. This complex field has been discussed, described, and studied for many years, and definitive answers are not easy to come by. However, review of the papers seemed to indicate a thread of concern and agreement. For example, note the similarities as to what the practitioners have said regarding competencies and those listed by professors and others. Furthermore, agreement seemed to be present in the need for certification and in research reported in the annotated bibliography. The data accumulated by the members of the working group were examined in relation to each topic, not collectively. Thus, the combined data are a fertile field for extended analysis of the preparation and role of the curriculum leader at the various levels of service to schools.

Editor's note: Midway through the working group's activities a distinction between curriculum worker and curriculum leader was noted. The term "curriculum worker" applied to most educators—whether central office administrator, teacher, or principal. The term "curriculum leader" applied to that person with primary responsibility for the planning, coordination, and/or management of curriculum activity in a district. It is the concept of the "curriculum leader" that occupied most of the working group's efforts.

1 Who is the curriculum worker?

EUGENE BARTOO

One wonders how the indefinite, advising-without-authority role of the curriculum specialists managed to prevail as long and as satisfactorily as it did before anyone requested objective evidence of its effectiveness. Had not the academicians, the youth of America, the minority group parents, and the teachers demanded a greater voice in matters of curriculum and instruction, things might have continued indefinitely as they were. But the often disruptive demands of these groups could not be ignored or talked away. Action had to be taken. The role of the administrator as the "official leader" was quite clear (Hein, 1973, p. 376).

The schools can no longer safely assume (in the age of the managers) that curriculum leadership is one and the same with school administration; curriculum design integrity and continuing professional leadership in academic affairs demand clear role differentiation beyond any existing precedents, actual or theoretical (Wilson, 1971, p. 71).

THE QUESTION IN THE TITLE seems quite simple on the surface. It is certainly germane to the discussion about certification since one presumes that the group to be certified ought to be identified. The question, however, is not simple, but quite complex as can be seen if the question were to be reworded to disclose the reason for asking the question: Is the concept "curriculum worker" sufficiently well defined as to allow the differentiation of curriculum workers from non-curriculum workers?

More particularly, the *concept* "curriculum worker" is to be thought of as the *category* "curriculum worker." The concept refers to a classification or grouping of persons on the basis of some sort of rationale. In answering the above question, we seek clarification of a type of concept referred to as a category. This specification is helpful in interpreting various constructions of the curriculum worker concept because it forces the consideration of those logical demands made when one is operating categorically.[1]

There are two ways to define a category. One way is to identify the criteria to be used in determining membership in the category. The other way is to list all the members of the category, or enough of them to make the criteria for membership clear. Either way is sufficient for the purpose of definition. This process seems appropriate for the task of determining whether the curriculum worker category is sufficiently well defined.

The methodology suggested here is that of concept elucidation. The source of information upon which such elucidation is performed is, of course, the literature about the curriculum worker. A strict adherence to the methodology would dictate that only works which contain the term "curriculum worker" should be presented. To do so, however, would limit the analysis so severely that the tacit meaning of the concept would be destroyed. That tacit meaning involves notions that (a) the curriculum worker is the major practitioner in a field of activity and knowledge, (b) the term curriculum worker is a kind of catch-all phrase referring to those practitioners who have also been labeled with several other descriptors, and (c) the category of curriculum worker is not necessarily separate from or identical with the category of, say, curriculum specialist. The argument here is that to only hunt for the specific term curriculum worker is to make the category mistake (Ryle, 1949).

Yearbooks of ASCD

The one organization in the United States that has a history of literature dealing with descriptions of and prescriptions for

[1] The logic of categories owes most of its explication to Russell and Whitehead's *Principia Mathematica*. An interesting and widely quoted application of this logic is: Gilbert Ryle. *The Concept of Mind*. New York: Barnes & Noble, 1949. The curriculum field in particular is now finding some of its language scrutinized from this framework; for example: L. B. Daniels. "What Is the Language of the Practical?" *Curriculum Theory Network* 4 (4): 237-61; 1975.

curriculum workers is the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). That organization has also prompted and promoted the work of the group compiling these working papers.[2]

The last major publication dealing specifically with the curriculum worker concept was ASCD's 1965 Yearbook (ASCD, 1965). Although the title lists the supervisor and the curriculum director as the actors to whom the imminent roles pertain, Carlson, as Chairman of the Committee that planned the publication, reported:

> . . . the Committee decided that for the purposes of this Yearbook, since the titles "supervisor" and "curriculum director" often are used interchangeably as to function, the terms might be used in the broadest sense to indicate persons who, either through working with supervisors, principals, or others at a central office level, contribute to the improvement of teaching and/or the implementation and development of curriculum. . . .
>
> As the Yearbook developed, the use of terminology as agreed upon by the Committee was maintained with one exception: additional terms of curriculum worker—curriculum specialists, consultants, curriculum leaders, and instructional leaders—all have been used in the same sense as supervisor and curriculum director (pp. 2-3).

The description, then, of curriculum worker was made by citing the criterion of *function*, that is, "persons who . . . contribute to the improvement of teaching and/or the implementation and development of curriculum." The term curriculum worker was used only once in the Carlson chapter and the verbal conjunction of supervisor and curriculum director was maintained. The positions of the writers of the other chapters of the Yearbook served to support and embellish the criterion of function presented by the Committee.[3]

Van Til's chapter of the Yearbook added a criterion to the definition. Written over a decade ago, the chapter was produced in the midst of national curriculum reform in the subject matter areas. In this chapter Van Til warned of the dangers of ignoring the specialized wisdom that the "professional educator" could bring

[2] The writer wishes to acknowledge the help of the other members of the Working Group on the Role, Function, and Preparation of the Curriculum Leader sponsored by ASCD: Donald Christensen, Maenelle Dempsey, Veronica Kollar, and Allan Sturges. The writer would also like to thank Lucy Dyer, Richard Derr, and Robert Harnack who read earlier drafts of this paper and made many extensive and helpful comments.

[3] It may be important to recognize that the Yearbook Committee membership is not the same as the group of writers who produced the Yearbook, although it can be assumed that the two groups did not work in total isolation.

to the reform effort; a warning that was not generally heeded. While paying respect to the various education specialists, including supervisors and curriculum directors, he wrote of the "role of the *generalist*" as one who "must bear the responsibility for the long and comprehensive view of the curriculum" (pp. 26-27). This criterion was reiterated in the Shafer and Mackenzie chapter (p. 69).

Two more criteria were added to the definition of curriculum worker by Babcock. He resolved the awkward, or perhaps redundant, use of the phrase "supervisor and curriculum director" by referring to such a person as a "curriculum leader" and later as the "curriculum supervisor" or the "supervisor of curriculum" (p. 58). One important criterion added is that of *leadership*. He also stated that the curriculum leader is part of the administrative structure of the school and argued that such a leader should occupy a *staff position*, as opposed to a line position (the second criterion, p. 61).

The other chapters amplify the four criteria of definition presented. Shafer and Mackenzie elaborated on the special functions of the curriculum worker. Klohr itemized some potentially fruitful areas for further work in the theory and research about and for the curriculum worker.

Before investigating other descriptions of the curriculum worker concept it is important to take a second look at the seemingly redundant use of the terms "supervisor" and "curriculum director." One would think that if they are used interchangeably, then they could be dropped for a single term, or that one or the other alone could be used. Each of these options has been taken on occasion by other writers with no apparent loss of meaning. However, the 1965 Yearbook retained the two terms in the title. A partial understanding of this curiosity lies in the genesis and history of ASCD.

ASCD was born in March of 1943 at the Chicago meeting of the National Education Association (NEA). ASCD had been, until 1975, affiliated with the NEA, as had most other professional educator groups. The ASCD department was conceived through the marriage of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, founded by the NEA in 1921, to the Society for Curriculum Study, an organization of about the same age as the Department of Supervisors. As the *Journal of Addresses and Proceedings* documents (NEA, 1942):

The Department of Supervisors, founded in 1921 as the Conference on Educational Method, has long been concerned with the improvement of instruction. Within the last several years supervision has been interpreted as embracing teacher growth in three large areas, namely, the area of wholesome emotional and mental development, the area of socio-economic understanding and adjustment, and the area of professional competence. The Society for Curriculum Study, organized in 1924 to promote progressive curriculum revision, has more recently emphasized the guidance of teachers in effective personal and professional growth. An inevitable result of this similarity of purposes has been increased overlapping of membership (p. 313).

Educational Leadership, the journal of ASCD, presented its first issue in October of 1943, carrying as subheading the titles of the two parent journals: *Educational Method* of the Department of Supervisors and the *Curriculum Journal* of the Society for Curriculum Study. *Educational Leadership* purported to serve a myriad of constituencies and the membership in the fledgling organization was listed as including supervisors, principals, professors of education, curriculum specialists, teachers, and superintendents of schools.

A check back through the ancestry of the 1965 Yearbook is revealing as regards the curriculum worker concept *vis à vis* the supervisor and the curriculum director. ASCD's first Yearbook dealing with persons or the role and function of persons who later seemed to be referred to as curriculum workers was issued in 1946. The title, *Leadership Through Supervision*, is indicative of the nature of the contents—supervision. As will be seen in a later section of this paper, concepts of supervision had changed over the past century and this Yearbook was seminal in that it collected an emerging point of view. As Wilhelms summarized:

> . . . the supervisor is an organizer of opportunity, and that good supervision is the facilitation of opportunities. Opportunity for whom? For teachers, primarily. . . . Opportunity for what? . . .
>
> 1. Opportunity for teachers to learn what they need and want to learn
>
> 2. Opportunity for teachers to play their full part in policymaking (p. 119).

The policymaking to which Wilhelms referred was identified as "the real results of the whole school's efforts—the philosophy of purpose, the mode of treatment of the student, the content of the curriculum, and the tools used in the task" (p. 121). Wilhelms saw supervision's greatest function as "the institutionalizing of this casual policymaking" (p. 121).

It seems clear from this glimpse at the 1946 Yearbook that the supervisor, if not a curriculum builder, was certainly a curriculum leader. However, most of the book was an attempt at a role description rather than a function description.[4]

The next Yearbook of the curriculum worker lineage was issued in 1951 by ASCD and was entitled *Action for Curriculum Improvement*. The Yearbook purported to offer "the forward looking principles and practices of curriculum improvement now being developed in American schools" (p. v). It can be contrasted with the 1946 Yearbook. While the former was an attempt at role description, the latter was an attempt at a function description. And the persons identified as carrying out the function were "the teacher, the administrator, the supervisor, the specialist" (p. 42). While the book dealt very little with the specialist (although the interpretation seemed to be that of subject matter and materiel expert) there was extended discussion of the teacher's importance in curriculum building; the supervisor's role as "resource person, coordinator, service agent, and consultant" (p. 164) and "divorced from administrative functions" (p. 85); the necessity of an administrator in the central curriculum staff with the "authority and responsibility for education program leadership on all levels included within the particular [school] system" (p. 125).

Leadership for Improving Instruction (1960) was the closest ancestor to the 1965 effort in the curriculum worker lineage. It was the first to use explicitly the term "curriculum worker." Overall, the publication attempted the application of a body of social and behavioral science research to the concept of leadership. The kinds of leaders addressed, according to chairman Hass, were teachers, principals, superintendents, guidance counselors, guidance specialists, supervisors, curriculum specialists, instructional consultants, directors of instruction, and curriculum consultants (pp. 1-4).

Part of Mackenzie's chapter specifically used the term curriculum worker (pp. 67-87). A reading reveals that Mackenzie separated the curriculum worker from the principal, the teacher, the superintendent, the guidance worker, the department head, the business director, and the research director. Cited as examples of titles of curriculum workers were "helping teachers, supervisors,

[4] Role is used to mean the *expectations* held as to the behavior of persons in a particular grouping. Function is used to mean *types of activity* to be engaged by the role performer. Function seems to be subsumed in role. The theater metaphor is apt and the example of the hero (role) rescuing-the-victim-in-distress (function) may help to clarify the difference.

coordinators, and directors of instruction" (p. 69). A problem with the role of the curriculum worker (identified as a "major organizational role") was its ambiguity, even more so than those roles of principal and teacher (p. 75).

The Johnson and Wilson chapter took a tangential stance. Listed among those "official leaders [who] work to spearhead action for the improvement of instruction" (p. 108) were two positions closest to Mackenzie's curriculum worker: the instructional consultant considered as being parceled into the three categories of building consultant, the high school department chairperson, and the consultant from the central office (pp. 113-16); and the assistant superintendent for instruction or director of instruction (pp. 117-19). No mention was made of the term curriculum worker and the term supervisor was apparently subsumed in the instructional consultant grouping.

This brings us back, then, to the verbal conjunction maintained in the 1965 Yearbook between the supervisor and the curriculum director. In a sense, the conjunction is an acknowledgment of the two areas of effort, the improvement of instruction and the development of curriculum that were now being viewed as one. However, the conjunction was not simply verbal. The four yearbooks, when viewed as a progression, exemplify some concerns in relation to the task of defining the curriculum worker concept.

The definition of the curriculum worker category could not be made by listing a sufficient number of members. Confusion was apparent over the inclusion of certain administrators such as the assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction. Although titles were recognized as not being important, it was difficult, nevertheless, to identify the audience to which the model actors' roles were being presented without the use of real titles. It was clear that the supervisor permeated the category: necessary for membership, but not sufficient.

The definition of the curriculum worker category was made through the specification of criteria. The 1965 ASCD Yearbook presented four such criteria, each having roots in earlier publications of the association. Each of the criteria has certain problems when applied individually and in concert to the universe of education workers. The criteria are *status leadership, staff position* (as opposed to line), *generalist* (as opposed to educational specialist), and the *function* of the improvement of instruction and/or the development of curriculum.

In the following sections the intention is to elaborate upon

each of the criteria in order to help clarify their meaning. This elaboration is to be primarily historical. However, elaboration alone is not sufficient. The confusions, problems, controversy, and perhaps contradiction in the identification of the role of the curriculum worker coalesce around each of the criteria. Therefore, a particular aspect of the confusion, problem, controversy, or contradiction is also to be presented. If curriculum leadership is to be enhanced through role specification, then the problems inherent in the application of these criteria must be solved.

Status Leadership

Although it is generally recognized that many different kinds of education workers contribute to curriculum work, the curriculum worker has been conceived as the leader of this work. Of all the criteria, this criterion seems to have the greatest acceptance; it is the least issue laden.

The notion of the curriculum worker as a status leader is rooted in the two histories of supervision and curriculum development. A definitive history of educational supervision has not been published. However, two textbooks on supervision have sketched an outline of the changing viewpoints of supervision and both show the connection between supervision and administration (Gwynn, 1961; and Lucio and McNeil, 1969). Supervision originally was thought of as inspection and was carried out by the superintendent of schools. As the size of schools increased and as new subjects were added to the curriculum, persons entitled supervisor were employed to aid in the inspection task. In the early 1900's, the industrial efficiency movement captured the thinking of educational leaders causing the task of supervision to shift to the determination of the standards of good teaching (Callahan, 1962). The efforts of the Committee on the Economy of Time of the Department of Superintendence of the NEA during this period were the impetus for two important yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education (NSSE).[5] The first was a kind of textbook on supervision done by Franklin Bobbitt (1913) and the second was a presentation of what were known to be the principles of

[5] See especially Chapter 6 of Daniel Tanner and Laurel Tanner. *Curriculum Development: Theory Into Practice.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975, for documentation of the Superintendents' Committee and its centrality in the early creation of the connections between supervision and curriculum making.

curriculum making up to that time, the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook (NSSE, 1926).[6] Each of the books signaled the emergence of fields of supervision and curriculum development.

The curriculum worker as a leader has in effect eliminated the teacher from consideration as a curriculum worker by virtue of the status portion of the leadership criterion. While much literature on education workers suggests various leadership roles for each actor by recognizing that there are emergent leaders as well as status leaders, the basic building block of organizations is a dualism: there are leaders and there are non-leaders. This, of course, is a labor-management dualism and an important manifestation of this dualism is collective bargaining. ASCD's 1965 Yearbook was written at the early stages of the collective bargaining movement by teachers, and the writers did not seem to be aware of the ramifications of the movement. The teachers' position regarding who makes up its bargaining group or sphere of interest has been consistent: curriculum workers were not teachers and hence were adversaries. One by one status leader groups were removed or withdrew from the NEA.

There is a curious paradox in the collective bargaining process. Negotiation is an adversarial process and to the teachers, the adversary includes the curriculum worker. The adversary is to be challenged and overcome (the strategy of the negotiation); at the same time the adversary is to be maintained (the only way for further negotiations to occur). The negotiation process challenges the Weberian concept of authority. The leader has the authority of position and, theoretically, the authority of competence.[7] By being a status leader, the curriculum worker is forced to assume the authority of competence (at something) and, at the same time, defend that competence from attack.

An example of one aspect of competence that creates an existential contradiction for the curriculum worker concerns the deter-

[6] Cremin has identified this book as a sign of the beginning of curriculum as a field of study and practice in: Lawrence Cremin. "Curriculum-making in the United States." *Teachers College Record* 73: 207-20; December 1971. Walker has also recently reviewed this Yearbook for the purpose of examining the roots of the curriculum field in: Decker Walker. "The Curriculum Field in Formation: A Review of the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education." *Curriculum Theory Network* 4 (4): 263-80; 1975.

[7] See: Norman J. Boyan. "The Emergent Role of the Teacher in the Authority Structure of the School." In: Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni, editors. *Organization and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969, for a discussion of these two uses of the concept of authority.

mination of "good" instruction. The authority for the improvement of instruction has been the primary function of the supervisor. During the scientific management days of Bobbitt, instruction was to be improved through the development of the standards of good teaching. Because those standards could not be determined, that era came to an end (Callahan, 1962). A recent review of research indicates that there is still no scientific basis for the identification of the kinds of teaching that produce certain kinds of learning (Macdonald and Clark, 1973). Now, merit pay, a concept predicated on the determination of good teaching, is often the counter proposal of boards of education to the demand for higher pay by teachers, while the supervisory staff is often asked to construct the proposed package for the board. This places the supervisor in the untenable position of advocating an empirically unsupportable package. One suggested remedy was to create "a strong collegial supervisory structure, unequivocally based on the authority of the competence of senior colleagues" (Boyan, 1969, p. 207). This remedy does nothing with the definition of teacher competence, but simply shifts the *assumed* ability to determine teacher merit to another group.

Staff Position

This criterion of curriculum worker category membership is closely linked to the previously discussed criterion of status leadership. Both criteria are stated in organizational role language, that is, they refer to a generalized organizational structure of schooling and they suggest certain "expectations held by members of a social system . . . for the behavior of incumbents of particular institutional positions. . . ." [8]

The criterion of staff position is contingent upon the criterion of leadership. The argument in support of this contingency is rather straightforward. If the criterion of status leadership is accepted then the concern focuses upon the appropriate structure and style of leadership. As regards structure, most older organizational thinking was patterned after the military and the classes of line and staff exhausted the possible positions. Both of the classes refer to the authority for decision making; line positions have the authority and staff positions advise and suggest. Since

[8] This is part of a formal definition of the concept of role offered by Sanford W. Reitman in: "Role Strain and the American Teacher." *School Review* 79 (3): 545.

the conception of the supervisor and the curriculum specialist as types of consultants is well rooted in tradition, the choice of staff is understood. As regards style, there has been an almost religious fanaticism in this country in support of a non-authoritarian, non-autocratic style of leadership. While that style may fit any particular type of leadership position, it seems most appropriate for the staff position.

While Callahan (1962) has explained the influence of the industrial efficiency movement on the thinking and actions of administrators and supervisors for the first two decades of the 20th century, no one has given a similar analysis of the "human relations movement" upon supervision, the model for supervision that succeeded the industrial efficiency model. Scrupski has held that the advent of the human relations model for supervision coincided with the zenith of the progressive education movement (Scrupski, 1975). This explanation seems partially warranted for three reasons:

1. Supervisory thought can be viewed by using the metaphor "the supervisor as a teacher of teachers." Supervisors would, then, tend to view their tasks using a mind set similar to the one used when they were teachers;

2. Many of the supervisors of the 1930's and 1940's must have been educated earlier as teachers under a heavy exposure to progressive pedagogical techniques; and,

3. Democratic human relations was one of the slogans used as a descriptor for the proper behavior for a progressive educator.[9]

It was the growth of the human relations model for supervision that bridged the chronological gap between the demise of the scientific management approach to supervision advocated by Bobbitt (1913) and the birth of ASCD. Clearly, the supervisor of the human relations type would not only have found "line command" over the improvement of instruction a historically ineffective stance, but an inappropriate one as well.

Thus far, little has been said of the history of the curriculum director. The Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the NSSE was identified

[9] The growth and influence of human relations as a managerial ideology was not confined to the schools. As is most often the case, the situation in the schools reflected the situation in society at large. Perrow has traced the underpinnings and the growth of the human relations movement in industrial management thinking. This growth involved a changing conception of labor in response to the union movement; the work of the organizational theorists Chester Barnard and Elton Mayo; and the substantial and controversial empirical support by Roethlisberger and Dickson (the "Hawthorne effect" studies). See: Charles Perrow. *Complex Organizations: A Critical Essay.* Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1972. Chapters 2 and 3.

earlier in this paper as signaling the beginning of curriculum as a field. As Walker has pointed out, the Yearbook suggested two major professional roles: that of the "specialist in curriculum making" and that of the "professor of curriculum" (Walker, 1975b, pp. 14-17). However, Walker's interpretation of the recommendation to create "a separate and autonomous Department of Curriculum-Construction" in the schools, placing the curriculum maker "within the regular school district administrative hierarchy—above the teachers and below the superintendent" is a bit overdrawn (Walker, 1975b, p. 16). Such an interpretation may account for the establishment of the assistant superintendent of curriculum and instruction, a "line" position. It does not explain, however, the increased reliance by large school districts upon the use of outside curriculum specialists (who were many of these same professors of curriculum).

Lawler has described the changing function of the outside curriculum consultant of the 1920's from that of an authority on course of study revision to that of an organizer of groups of teachers to identify and solve instructional problems. The work of the Curriculum Associates of the Eight-Year Study was held as exemplary while Lawler's own study was a case history of the work of the curriculum consultants of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation (Lawler, 1958).

> Curriculum consultants generally believe that their role in working for the improvement of instruction is (a) to work with school staffs as resource persons for both curriculum content and process; (b) to act as group members in the search for data and exploration of ideas relative to program planning and maintenance (p. 27).

Furthermore, these outside curriculum consultants viewed the leadership responsibilities of the curriculum worker (Lawler's own term) employees at the schools to include:

1. Providing resource assistance;
2. Participating in problem definition;
3. Freeing the group [or teachers] to carry on curriculum study;
4. Providing coordination;
5. Aiding the principal;
6. Providing released-time for teachers;
7. Facilitating continuity in personnel;
8. Providing and clearing lines of communication (p. 131).

The points of Lawler's work relevant to the staff position of curriculum worker are three: (a) Although Lawler's book deals with outside consultants, the role and function of the consultants

were viewed as a model for the curriculum worker[10]; (b) That this role and function demanded involvement of the school staff in curriculum study instead of an earlier stance by the consultant as an expert-assessor-of-course-of-study-revision working alone; (c) Where the consultants worked with the school curriculum staff, that staff's responsibilities were loaded with non-line-of-command types of action verbs: "freeing," "aiding," and, of course, "facilitating."

We see, then, that both the supervisor and the curriculum director were urged to occupy a persuasive, but not authoritative, stance toward curriculum work. Moreover, this stance was urged for both types of functionaries during the 1930's, 40's, and 50's era.

The concepts of line and staff positions reflect a military model of organizational decision making. That model may not be appropriate for schools and, indeed, it is no longer applied in most modern organizations. Drucker's treatment of management employs the shift of organizational development from determining who is responsible for the work of other people, that is, the command mode, to determining the responsibility for contribution. "Function rather than power has to be the distinctive criterion and the organizing principle" (Drucker, 1973, p. 394). Since it is commonly agreed that the improvement of instruction and the development of curriculum is everyone's responsibility, the focus upon function in the schooling organization creates an identity problem for the curriculum leader. If curriculum development is everyone's responsibility then it is no one person's special responsibility.

This leads us, now, to a discussion of specialism and its relationship to the curriculum leader—the generalist.

Generalist vs. Specialist

The term "generalist" is often juxtaposed with the term "specialist" to imply opposite meanings.[11] Indeed, this juxtaposition is necessary for the dialectic used in order to understand the meaning

[10] It is interesting to note that the Executive Director of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation during the time of Lawler's study was Gordon Mackenzie; the same Mackenzie of the 1951, 1960, and 1965 ASCD Yearbooks.

[11] Quite obviously a crude conception of specialists would negate the necessity of considering a conception of generalist in that any group that has some reason to be grouped is "special." From philosopher-kings to pediatric neurologists, all are specialists. In this sense, the curriculum worker as a generalist is a description of a specialist.

of generalist as it is applied as a criterion toward the task of identifying the curriculum worker. In the Shafer and Mackenzie chapter of the 1965 ASCD Yearbook in which the criterion was identified, both "generalist" and "specialist" were used to delineate types of curriculum workers by referring to the scope of their varied responsibilities. This application of the generalist vs. specialist criterion was apparently derived from an "overarching theory of leadership" in order to "interrelate administrative as well as instructional roles." The generalists were central office administrators who would "assume certain broad functions" while the specialists were consultative, or supervisory personnel who would be "confined to functions peculiar to [their] subject matter area or specialty" (ASCD, 1965, p. 69).

The sense of the meaning of the terms as used here needed elaboration, for the criterion addressed was crucial. However, Shafer and Mackenzie did not follow up their allusion to the generalist-specialist binomial as it related to function. Confusion results when function is the variable offered to determine the boundary between the specialist curriculum worker and the generalist curriculum worker, while span of authority was used as that variable in the stated examples. That is, the difference between the generalist and the specialist is either the number of people under command or the range of subject matter over which there is authority. It is quite possible, as a counter example, that the supervisor of mathematics and the curriculum director function in identical ways; for example, make decisions about scope, sequence, balance, goals, teaching, and evaluating.

Another treatment of the generalist-specialist dichotomy as applied to the curriculum worker was offered by Caswell (1966). Here the sense of specialist was that of subject matter expert and the sense of generalist was of one concerned with the general education of students. In fact, Caswell's generalist was the curriculum worker (his term). He held that the generalist's unique contribution was the "development and consistent implementation of general objectives," "the achievement of a desirable sequence or continuity in the experience of the student," and the "task of developing a reasoned balance of emphasis upon various areas of study" (pp. 214-15).

Schwab's efforts provide yet another source in distinguishing between generalist and specialist as applied to the curriculum worker (Schwab, 1970, 1971, and 1973). The first aspect relates to Schwab's argument that the curriculum field is "moribund" due

to its "reliance on theory." This reliance has taken two forms: (a) Theories are adopted from outside the field of education in order to deduce proper school procedures as well as the attempted construction of an inclusive theory of curriculum. (b) The demands of theory are incompatible with the practical demands of curriculum problems (Schwab, 1970). One could argue that if specialism connotes reliance upon identifiable theory for perspective and guidance, then curriculum work is not specialistic.

A second aspect generated by Schwab in the discussion of the specialist-generalist binomial is the generic nature of curriculum problems within schooling. This point reiterates the non-specialistic nature of curriculum work while at the same time it places bounds upon the universe of curriculum work. Theory, by necessity, delimits problems too severely while the method of the practical (deliberation) operates on a satisfiably broad, but nevertheless, identifiable subject matter; that is, schooling problems.[12] Curriculum work is generalist work, yet there are many deliberative actors doing the work who are specialists.

The third point is that the language of the practical places curriculum deliberation within the realm of participation by the specialist. It does not exclude by virtue of specialism many deliberative actors (Daniels, 1975, p. 238). This is not to suggest that the non-specialistic nature of curriculum deliberation is mundane. There are other models of deliberation which demand preparation and training in order to participate, for example, in law and in theology.

Schwab's three articles focused upon the nature of curriculum work and not upon the curriculum worker. Schwab proclaimed that the nature of curriculum work was non-theoretical; it was non-specialistic. Yet it must be done by many different kinds of specialists. One such specialist was identified as a curriculum specialist (Schwab, 1973). On the face of it, the position that there is no isomorphism between curriculum work and the curriculum worker is within the tradition of the curriculum field. "Curriculum planning is a cooperative enterprise" was a slogan that permeated the curriculum literature (for example, Krug, 1957, *passim*). However, Cremin's influential review of curriculum making argued that the establishment of a separate curriculum field and the professionalization of practitioners within that field created such an isomorphism.

[12] This point is made in: Ian Westbury. "The Character of a Curriculum for a 'Practical' Curriculum." *Curriculum Theory Network* 10: 30; Fall 1972.

What it also did, willy-nilly, was to demarcate the analysis and development of the curriculum as the special preserve of a definable group of specialists working within the schools and trained within the education faculty of the university. The consequences of this staking out were prodigious with respect to who would "make" curricula from that time forward and to assumptions under which curriculum-making would proceed (Cremin, 1971).

Cremin's thesis was that the curriculum reform movements of the 1960's were using the same "paradigm of curriculum-making that had prevailed for three-quarters of a century" (p. 216) while purporting to wrest the reins of control from the curriculum profession in order to heal an ailing educational system. The thesis was inaccurate. It is true that the reform movement did intend to "take the responsibility for curriculum-making out of the hands of such curriculum specialists" (Woodring, 1964, p. 6). And it is true, that the paradigm for the new curriculum making was the same paradigm used at the initiation of the curriculum field—a paradigm predicated on a notion of curriculum making as course of study revision.

However, the paradigm for curriculum making had changed since the days of William Torrey Harris and Franklin Bobbitt and the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the NSSE. It was the changed paradigm that was the one under attack by the 60's reformers because the changed paradigm was viewed as that of belittling the importance of the subject matter disciplines. This changed paradigm, however, never intended to belittle subject matter; nor did it intend to exclude, or reduce in importance any one of the hallowed triad of learners, society, and subject matter; nor make any one of the three more prominent than the others (Herrick, 1965). The changed paradigm, however, was not well articulated (presumably a job for curriculum theory) nor well verified (only partially accomplished by the Eight-Year Study). The curriculum reform movement stopped any further development of the paradigm by returning curriculum development to materiel production.[13]

Schwab's efforts can be viewed against the experiences of the 1960's and indeed as emanating from those experiences since he was involved in the development of science materials. His efforts can also be viewed as an attempt to add to the development of the paradigm of curriculum making as interrupted by the reform

[13] A much more satisfying account than Cremin's of the purposes behind the 60's curriculum reform movement will be found in: Joel Spring. *The Sorting Machine: National Educational Policy Since 1945.* New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1976.

movement. A reading of "The Practical 3" places his thought comfortably close to the curriculum planning groups that were proposed prior to World War II. While he identifies the need for a "curriculum specialist," the prescribed functions of that specialist clearly require a breadth of knowledge indicative of a generalist. In the "Arts of Eclectic," the course presumably described for curriculum workers would give quite powerful, but non-specialistic, tools for instructional analysis. Further analysis of the implications of Schwab's work for the functions of the curriculum worker will await another paper. At present, it is clear that "the practical," "the method of deliberation," and "the arts of the eclectic" offer generic elements of some power for development of the curriculum field and its practitioners.

The implication of those elements is not revolutionary in the sense identified by Kuhn (1962). As has been stated earlier, Schwab's efforts are well within the pre-1960 tradition of the curriculum field. The functions of Schwab's curriculum specialist are similar, in kind, to the functions of Caswell's generalist. The major function of that specialist is to allow curriculum planning to be balanced, that is, that each "agent of translation" [14] has equal effect. The knowledge of the curriculum specialist is of types and kinds of curriculum material. The skill of the curriculum specialist is that of coordination. The problem with the Schwab prescription is the distance in time, perhaps in geography, and certainly in effect from the classroom action. The implementation of the product of the planning group is presumably by persons other than members of the group itself. One suspects that such implementation is to be made efficacious by supervisors. This top-down process of curriculum revision is not new. Yet, while the provision of persons who can give support as needed is a welcome relief to standard practice, this continues to project largely a worker role for the teacher.

We now proceed to the final criterion as presented by the 1965 ASCD Yearbook, that of *function*. This is the most important of the four criteria. It follows quite naturally from the previous criterion. If the curriculum worker's role is non-specialistic because of the generic nature of the field, then what are the functions of this role?

[14] In Schwab (1973) the agents identified were subject matter, learners, milieux (community), and teachers. These agents are necessary and sufficient and are to be manifested by persons who have specialized knowledge of each of these agents or areas and who serve on the curriculum-making group as deliberators.

Function

Function, its final criterion, was needed by the 1965 ASCD Yearbook Committee in order to distinguish the category of curriculum worker from the other categories of education workers who might also be "status leaders," occupying "staff positions," and considered "generalists." "Persons who . . . contribute to the improvement of teaching and/or the implementation and development of curriculum" (p. 2) was the criterion identified and it seems to relate to the functions of curriculum workers.

There are really two matters of paramount concern with this criterion. The first is the necessity to delineate the division of labor among education workers and to describe the role set of the curriculum worker. The second is the similarity of the functions of improving instruction and developing curriculum. Both issues must be resolved more adequately than the 1965 Yearbook prescribed and more adequately than they are presently prescribed.

The delineation of the division of labor and role set are concepts of "role theory" from the field of sociology. Essentially, division of labor "refers to the particular complement of specializations for a given domain of behavior and for a specific set of persons." Role set "refers to the complement of specializations characteristic of each behaver" and should occur after the devision of labor has been established (Biddle and Thomas, 1966, p. 40). Klohr recognized this need for the delineation of specialties in order to prevent "role diffusion" and suggested some ways to further the clarification of those specialties (ASCD, 1965, pp. 145-50).

An identification of the various particularized specializations is beyond the scope of this paper.[15] However, it is possible here to shed some light upon the general areas of the improvement of instruction and the development of curriculum. In relation to the concepts of division of labor and role set, the light to be shed concerns two questions:

1. Does the function "the improvement of instruction" and the function "the development of curriculum" place a boundary on the complement of specialization for the curriculum worker? (division of labor)

2. Are both functions the complement of specializations characteristic of each curriculum worker? (role set)

[15] See: Allan Sturges and Veronica Kollar, "Competencies for Curriculum Workers," Chapter 3 in this booklet, for a collection of competencies of the curriculum worker as produced by various individuals around the country.

The answer to the first question does not necessarily determine the answer to the second. The ASCD 1965 Yearbook answered the first question affirmatively, but apparently hedged on the answer to the second. That hedging is manifested in some later writings on the curriculum worker and it may be the essence of the curriculum worker certification problem.

If one can accept, for purposes of this paper, that most of the literature on supervision presents various points of view regarding prescription for the improvement of instruction, then this literature should indicate whether curriculum development is seen as part of the role set of the supervisor. A couple of examples would be sufficient to demonstrate that such views exist. These examples must not be obscure. The purpose of this exercise is to focus on what undergirds the issue *of curri*culum worker certification.

The first example was the supervisory model referred to as "clinical supervision" (Goldhammer, 1969; and Cogan, 1973).[16] The model emphasized supervisor-teacher interaction through techniques of counseling. Of primary importance was the personal growth of the teacher and the assumption that personal growth of the learner would follow.

> Our minds struggle for images of a supervision whose principal effect is to expand the sense of gratification experienced by students and teachers and supervisors, gratification in being and gratification in the work they do (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 8).

While Goldhammer rejected curriculum concerns (pp. 3-11, *passim*), Cogan left curriculum development a possibility through lesson planning, the second phase of his cycle of clinical supervision. However, lesson planning was viewed as the end of a continuum whose origin was some "national charter of education" (p. 106). In a sense, clinical supervision was the high water mark of the human relations type of supervision.

The second example is the emergent work of Sergiovanni and his phrase "human resources supervision" (Sergiovanni, 1975). This type of supervision was viewed as "beyond human relations" in the sense that human relations supervision was based on McGregor's Theory X applied in a "soft" manner whereas human resources supervision is based, more carefully, upon McGregor's Theory Y. Major concerns of the supervisor center around such

[16] Although there are differences between each writer's view of clinical supervision, both tests are to be considered as "the model." Both men were involved in the Harvard-Newton Summer Program from which the notion of clinical supervision was developed.

concepts as "motivation," "job enrichment," "hygiene factors" (external rewards or motivators), and "commitment." The Sergiovanni example regards curriculum development in quite a different way than clinical supervision. Where the former rejected curriculum development, the latter splits curriculum. On the one hand, the supervisor must create an environment of job enrichment by giving teachers great decision-making power with regard to curriculum materials and content (pp. 23-24), while on the other hand a basic assumption of the human resources model is

> . . . to create an environment in which teachers can contribute their full range of talents *to the accomplishment of school goals* [emphasis mine] (p. 12).

Sergiovanni's work comes out of management theory and makes supervision a managerial responsibility.

Let us now turn around the types of examples sought and present an instance of prescription for the development of curriculum without the concomitant concern for the improvement of instruction.

The example is Joyce's set of propositions for the improvement of the curriculum field (Joyce, 1971).

> By focusing on a certain kind of educational institution (the school) and by focusing on functionaries (teachers) whose roles have developed within constraints of that institution, the curriculum field has forced itself to operate within parameters so restrictive that it has been unable to develop strong, validated theory and it has been impotent to improve education (p. 314).

Joyce's consistent view is that curriculum development is a kind of engineering process that precedes institution building. This view coincided with the rise of alternative schooling and the concern for deschooling.

There is a great deal of prescriptive curriculum worker literature that takes neither of the positions outlined earlier; that is, of ignoring either the improvement of instruction or the development of curriculum (for example, Harnack, 1968; Lewis and Miel, 1972; Lucio and McNeil, 1969; Taba, 1962; Tanner and Tanner, 1975). This type of literature is well within the tradition established by the ASCD yearbooks. However, much of that literature has not been able to move beyond the 1965 position: a position recognizing that the two functions of the improvement of instruction and the development of curriculum are similar, perhaps identical. The Tanner and Tanner effort is a case in point. While

insisting that curriculum and instruction create an artificial dualism, the prescribed functions for the supervisor are the same as those listed in the Shafer and Mackenzie chapter of the ASCD 1965 Yearbook (Tanner and Tanner, 1975, chapter 13).

There is some value to an argument that could be seen through this sketch:

1. The ASCD 1965 Yearbook represented the high water mark for the attempts to integrate supervision and curriculum development. The Yearbook was written during the frenzy of curriculum and schooling reform through massive spending by the federal government. Thus the volume could be viewed as an attempt to maintain the tradition of the curriculum field.

2. Prior to World War II, as has been outlined, supervision and curriculum development were separate functions with separate practitioners and both areas were moving together.

3. After 1965, both supervision and curriculum development began to move apart again. Curriculum development was spurred by the growing body of "program development" literature studying and reporting upon the "projects" of regional and national scope. Implementation and dissemination became the processes of local curriculum development. Supervision was spurred by the reactive necessities of confrontation through collective bargaining and the active possibilities of the "human potential movement."

4. This moving apart was given some conceptual basis with the analyses of "curriculum" and "instruction" as "preactive" and "active" planning (Macdonald, 1965), or "intended learning outcomes" (Johnson, 1967) and "implementation," respectively.

5. The result, then, could be seen by conceiving of curriculum development as the adoption and management of a series, or set of projects, or programs, and by conceiving of the improvement of instruction as the twofold effort of matching types of teachers to program demands and the improvement of techniques. Both constructions are the province of administration with the power to direct the efforts. The boundaries of authority are determined through negotiated agreements.

Final Comment

This paper has intended to collect the criteria that have been used in the definition of the category of curriculum worker. Some effort has been made to indicate the historical roots of each criterion

and some contemporary manifestations of the confusion or contradiction in each of the criteria. This paper has not intended to provide new criteria, but has assumed that if new criteria emerge, they will be related to, or would have grown out of, the extant 1965 statement.

As one views the curriculum worker rather than curriculum work, the type of discourse, of necessity, is limited by organizational considerations. Looking at the worker rather than the work is to consider a functionary. This constraint causes the loss of some of the richness of curriculum as a field of study.

The relationship between the study of curriculum and the practice of curriculum or curriculum work was not explored. Although contemporary thought seems to support the stance that the type of work and competence needed should control the type of study and knowledge presented, this vocational emphasis upon study is not universally accepted, or appealing. The meaning in the study of curriculum *is not wholly* contingent upon the existence of schools. The disposition to act that results from such study is not necessarily predicated upon the existence of only certain kinds of arenas for that action.[17]

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[17] Curriculum as an academic field of study can be encountered without direct and constant reflection upon schools. This activity is similar to theory building as an enterprise that can be pursued without immediate and direct consequence to schools.

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2 Certification: state requirements and selected professors' attitudes

ALLAN STURGES

PROBABLY ONE OF THE MOST CONFUSING POSITIONS in education to describe has been that of the curriculum worker. This is well documented in the previous paper. No common title or job description existed; little was known of the specific ways in which the worker should be prepared. And, there was limited information to indicate whether there was any national interest in the question of certification for the curriculum worker. Because of this, a working group was commissioned by ASCD to explore these questions.

Information included in this paper was derived from two surveys. One survey attempted to identify present certification procedures as reported by the certification officer in each state department of education. A similar survey instrument was directed to professors in selected universities whose faculties prepare curriculum workers (leaders).

Results of States' Survey

A questionnaire was sent to a certification officer in each state department of education. After the completed questionnaires were received from the majority of the state officers, a brief summary of their responses was returned to the appropriate officer for verification. The same summary form was sent to those officers who did not respond to the original questionnaire. Responses to the abbreviated summary of questions were received from certification officers in 50 states. These responses are reported in Table 1.

Of the 50 respondents, 34 indicated that curriculum workers should be certified; two responded that curriculum workers should not be certified; the remaining 14 did not respond to the question.

Table 1. Responses to Eight Questions Concerning Certification of Curriculum Directors, by State

(Based on Responses Received in 1974)

States	Questions								Explanations
	Certification required? A	Minimum degree level B	Years of classroom teaching required C	Years of administrative experience required D	Years of supervisory experience required E	Amount of field experiences required F	Amount of intern experiences required G	Should curriculum directors be certified? H	
Alabama	Yes[1]	M	2-5	—	—	—	—	Yes	[1] as supervisors of instruction
Alaska	Yes	M[1]	3	—	—	—	1 sem.	Yes	[1] approved programs
Arizona	Yes[1]	M[2]	3	—	—	—	—	—	[1] as supervisor [2] 45 hrs.
Arkansas	Yes	M[1]	2-5	—	—	—	—	Yes	[1] master's plus 15 semester hrs.
California	Yes	M[1]	5	1	—	—	1 yr.	Yes	[1] in academic area under revision
Colorado	Yes	S[1]	2-5	No	No	—	Vary	Yes	[1] approved program
Connecticut	Yes	M[1]	5	No	No	—	—	Yes	[1] master's plus 15 semester hrs.
Delaware	Yes	M[1]	3	No	No	No	No	—	[1] master's plus 30 semester hrs.
Florida	Yes	M[1]	5	No	No	No	No	Yes	[1] rank 2; rank 1 requires doctorate
Georgia	Yes	M[1]	3	Acceptable Experience		No	No	Yes	[1] for "AS-5" certificate
Hawaii	Yes	D	2	5 yrs.[1]		No	1 sem.	Yes	[1] 10 yrs. experience, with 5 yrs. in school administration
Idaho	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Illinois	Yes	M	2	No	No	—	No	Yes	

Indiana	Yes	S	3-5	No	No	—	1 sem.	—	
Iowa	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Kansas	Yes	M[1]	3[2]	—	—	—	1 sem.	Yes	[1] 48 graduate hrs. [2] as certified personnel
Kentucky	Yes	M[1]	2-5	No	No	—	—	Yes	[1] master's plus 15 semester hrs.—approved program
Louisiana	No	M[1]	5	No	No	—	—	—	[1] for supervisors
Maine	Yes	30 credits beyond B	3	0	0	Part of program	Part of program	Yes	
Maryland	Yes	M[1]	2-5	No	No	—	—	Yes	[1] master's plus 15 semester hrs.
Massachusetts	Yes	M	0	No	No	—	—	Yes	
Michigan	No[1]	—	—	—	—	—	—	Yes	[1] school districts determine requirements beyond teaching certification
Minnesota	Yes	M[1]	3 yrs.		No	—	—	Yes	[1] 45 quarter hrs. beyond master's or specialist's for school administration
Mississippi	Yes	M	2-5	No	No	—	No	Yes	
Missouri	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	asst. to supt. requires master's degree and appropriate training
Montana	Yes	M	2-5	Yes	No			No	approved program and recommended by university
Nebraska	Yes	S[1]	3	No	No	—[2]	Yes[3]	Yes	[1] approved program; [2] determined by institution, approved by state; [3] "over extended period"

Table 1 (continued)

States	Questions								Explanations
	Certification required? A	Minimum degree level B	Years of classroom teaching required C	Years of administrative experience required D	Years of supervisory experience required E	Amount of field experiences required F	Amount of intern experiences required G	Should curriculum directors be certified? H	
Nevada	Yes	M	3	—	—	—	—	Yes	
New Hampshire	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
New Jersey	Yes	M	3	No	No	—	—	Yes	
New Mexico	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	Yes	
New York	Yes	S	(2-5 years)			—	Yes	Yes	
North Carolina	Yes	M[1]	0	No	No	—	1 sem.	Yes	[1] approved program and recommendation from university competencies met
North Dakota	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	No	
Ohio	Yes	M	3	Yes	1[1]		1 sem.	Yes	[1] as member central office administration
Oklahoma	No[1]	M	2-5	No	No	—	—	Yes	[1] not as curr. directors but if asst. supt., then these requirements
Oregon	No[1]	M[2]	3	No	2-5	(Yes)		Yes	[1] as supervisors, not curr. directors; [2] 10 semester hrs. beyond master's

Pennsylvania	No								as member of administration team supervisor requires master's in field + 5 yrs. exp. + supv. program
Rhode Island	Yes	M[1]	2-5	No	Yes	—	No	—	[1] semester hrs. or 36 semester hrs. beyond BA
South Carolina	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	certified in areas of supervision
South Dakota	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Tennessee	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Texas	Yes	M[1]	3	No	No	—	1 sem.[2]	Yes	[1] 15 semester hrs. beyond master's; [2] for administrator; none for supervisor
Utah	Yes	M[1]	2-5	No	No	—	—	Yes	[1] professional certification required in 6 yrs.; requires specialist's degree or doctorate
Vermont	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Virginia	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	Yes	as supervisors
Washington	No	—	—	—	—	—	—	Yes	adm. and for teacher certificates now held by these people
West Virginia	Yes	M	3	No	—	2	—	Yes	new standards fall 1974 titled "General Supervisor of Instruction"
Wisconsin	Yes	M[1]	3	No	No	—	1 sem.	Yes	[1] approved programs; univ. recommends
Wyoming	Yes	M	0-2	No	No	—	—	Yes	as "Assistant Supt."

Key to abbreviations under Question B: B = bachelor's degree; M = master's degree; S = specialist's degree; D = doctorate.

Thirty-two states indicated that certification was currently required for curriculum workers. Although the survey was concerned with the curriculum worker, some respondents stated that certification was required but attached a footnote indicating that their response was to the position of "supervisor" or "coordinator."

Of the 32 states indicating that certification was required, the level of preparation varied in almost every instance. The required degree ranged from the bachelor's degree to the doctorate. One state required a bachelor's; 18 states required the master's; eight states required 15 semester hours beyond the master's; four required the specialist's; and, one required the doctorate.

The 32 states which had certification requirements indicated that classroom teaching experience was also required. Eleven states indicated that between two and five years teaching experience was required; 14 states required three years experience; and, three required five years experience.

Other types of experience were not as common a requirement for certification. Six of the 32 states required experience in administration, and five required experience in supervision. Twelve of the 32 states indicated that an internship was required as part of the preparation program; eight of the 12 indicated that the internship was for one semester.

Thirty-two state officers indicated that certification was issued through the state department of education, while eight states indicated that school districts and/or preparing universities could determine the requirements.

The content of the programs varied according to the number of hours required in curriculum (from two to twelve semester hours) for the master's and (from six to 30 for the specialist's) and in administration (from 12 to 15 for the master's and from six to 30 for the specialist's). Content required outside professional education courses ranged from 4 percent to 30 percent in the social sciences, from 10 percent to 30 percent in the behavioral sciences, and from 4 percent to 30 percent in the humanities.

Thirty-two respondents indicated specific courses that should be included in a curriculum worker's program. The most frequently recommended courses were recorded in Table 2.

In addition to courses in Table 2, 21 courses were listed in curriculum, administration, media, guidance, and educational psychology. These courses received recommendations by less than 20 percent of the respondents.

Course	Number of Respondents	Percent of Respondents
Elementary Curriculum	15	45
Secondary Curriculum	14	42
Curriculum Construction	13	39
Curriculum Development	13	39
Curriculum Design	10	30
Theories of Curriculum	9	27
Theories of Instruction	7	21
Principles of Supervision	16	48
Elementary Supervision	10	30
Secondary Supervision	8	24
Human Relations	8	24
Principles of Administration	12	36
Leadership	7	21
Measurement and Evaluation	11	33
Research Design	10	30

Table 2. Courses That Are Required for Curriculum Directors as Reported by Certification Officers (32 Respondents)

Several certification officers submitted statements that described their personal opinions on the question of certification. Typical comments included:

"Programs should be minimally stated but at the same time should provide for the development of identified skills and knowledge and the educational growth of the individual. Often programs which are stated in minimal requirements are approved and completed at the same level."

"Permit the college advisor plenty of leeway to 'tailor make' a program that best meets the needs of a particular applicant for admission to the program."

"Certification requirements [should be] minimally stated so that universities have flexibility in designing [the] program with collaboration from public schools, state departments, professionals in the field."

"A competency-based field-centered program for teacher education which requires that graduates of same demonstrate that they have/possess the desired and appropriate knowledges, skills, attitudes, and behaviors to enable children to learn is critical. The program should be primarily field-based and the program's objectives

should be derived from the roles and responsibilities of the professional position for which the graduate is being prepared. The manner in which the individual gains the aforementioned competencies is not nearly so crucial as is the person's ability to utilize them."

"Method is just as important as content. Formal courses usually contain lecture, theory, and principles; field work provides [the] opportunity to demonstrate competency in applying knowledge through performance in leadership and interacting."

Summary of Findings—State Departments

Based on reported information, 32 states have certification programs for curriculum workers. Frequently, certification was listed as part of the administrative staff, with requirements not dissimilar to those required of a superintendent. Thirty-three state certification directors recommended that curriculum workers be certified.

Typically, a curriculum worker would have a minimum of a master's degree and be certificated as a teacher with at least three years experience. The program would emphasize content in the areas of curriculum and supervision, followed closely by content in administration and in measurement/evaluation/research design. The program would combine field-related experiences, probably in the form of an internship, with university-based classes. Both method of instruction and content would be considered equally important. The program would probably not be specifically stated but would provide maximum freedom for the preparing institution to provide an appropriate program for each student, and to provide the school district the opportunity to employ the person most appropriately prepared for the district's needs.

Results of Universities Survey

The survey instrument was also sent to the 78 universities which are listed as having doctoral programs for curriculum workers approved by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). Professors from 50 universities responded to the questions. Forty-six percent recommended that certification remain the responsibility of the state department of education; 20 percent recommended that universities should certify; and, 2 percent (one respondent) recommended that certification

should be the responsibility of the state ASCD. Thirty-two percent did not respond to the question.

Sixteen percent of the professors recommended the master's degree as the minimum degree level for curriculum workers, 32 percent recommended the specialist's certificate, and 6 percent recommended the doctorate. Fifty-two percent recommended from two to five years classroom teaching experience; and, 22 percent recommended over five years teaching experience should be required.

The most frequently recommended courses to be included in the preparatory program for curriculum workers are illustrated in Table 3.

Course	Number Responding	Percent
Elementary Curriculum	24	48
Secondary Curriculum	22	44
Curriculum Development	20	40
Curriculum Construction	15	30
Curriculum Design	14	28
Theories of Curriculum	14	28
Theories of Instruction	12	24
Instructional Systems	9	18
Principles of Supervision	28	56
Principles of Administration	25	50
Educational Psychology	24	48
Learning Theories	13	26
Measurement and Evaluation	18	36
Statistics	13	26
Research and Design	11	22

Table 3. Courses That Are Required for Curriculum Directors as Reported by University Professors (50 Respondents)

An additional fifteen courses in administration, media, guidance, and educational psychology received recommendations by less than 20 percent of the respondents.

The professors indicated a wide range in the types of required content outside professional education courses for curriculum workers. In the social sciences, the amount ranged from 10 percent to 40 percent of the total program; in the behavioral sciences and the humanities the range was from 5 percent to 30 percent. Only 12 universities responded to these questions. Several also indicated that specific content was determined on an individual basis.

Forty-three of the 50 professors recommended certification for

curriculum workers; only one professor specifically said "no"; six professors did not respond.

Several professors submitted statements of personal opinions on the question of certification. Typical comments included:

"I'm not convinced that certification, as we know it, is effective."

"People in this position are expected to hold an administrator's certificate and a supervisor's certificate."

Four professors specified a concern for the certification of curriculum workers and indicated current studies and attempts to develop a blend of competency-based and traditional programs.

Summary of Findings—Professors

The majority of the professors responding to the questionnaire agreed that curriculum workers should be certificated. There was also general agreement that certification should remain the responsibility of the state department of education, although approved university programs for curriculum workers may be a viable route for certification. There was general agreement on both the content and appropriate experience.

To synthesize responses, professors recommended that a "typical" curriculum worker would have a specialist's certificate, from two to five years classroom teaching experience, and would have course work in elementary and secondary curriculum, curriculum development, principles of administration, principles of supervision, and probably some preparation in evaluation.

There were several questions raised in the results of the survey. For example, there was an inference in the responses that a single definition of the title "curriculum worker" did not exist. Several respondents indicated certification was available under the title "supervisor," "assistant superintendent," or a similar term. There seemed to be a wide range of qualifications expected for curriculum workers. For example, note the degree spread from the bachelor's to the doctoral degree. These responses were from certification officers and professors.

Summary of Findings

There was close agreement between certification officers and university professors in most areas in which information was

Question	State Department	Professor
1. Who should certify?	State Department	State Department
2. Degree level?	Master's plus	Certificate of Specialization
3. Classroom experience?	2-5 years	2-5 years
4. Content of program?	Curriculum, Supervision, Administration, Evaluation	Curriculum, Supervision, Administration, Evaluation
5. Nature of program?	Flexible	Flexible

Table 4. Summary of Responses to Questions by 50 State Certification Officers and 50 University Professors

requested. An indication of areas of agreement and disagreement is shown in Table 4.

Conclusions

This study indicated general agreement for certification of curriculum workers by state departments of education. There also seemed to be agreement that the specific content of the program should be the province of universities, with appropriate input from school districts.

Because of the nature of the position of curriculum worker, the diversity of each school district's unique needs made difficult any final agreement on specific responsibilities of the position. The significance of this issue is emphasized in Chapter 4 by Donald Christensen.

Perhaps influenced by tradition, as well as for management reasons, the position of curriculum worker was usually considered an administrative position, thus requiring rather specific preparation in administration. However, there seems to be agreement that the curriculum worker's preparation should concentrate on the areas of curriculum, with support areas in supervision, administration, and evaluation.

Finally it should be noted that any hard-and-fast conclusions could not be drawn concerning the extent of *actual* agreement between the views of certification directors and of professors. The extenuating circumstances of local political pressure, lack of precise definition, and the unclear nature of curricular issues suggested the need for further study and development.

3 Competencies for curriculum workers

ALLAN STURGES AND VERONICA KOLLAR

FOR SOME TIME, interest has been exhibited in the development of a competency-based preparatory program for curriculum workers. Although literature has referred to the need for such a program, little is known as to the present state of the art.

The ASCD Working Group on the Role, Function, and Preparation of the Curriculum Worker agreed that part of its report to ASCD members would be a status study of current attempts to indicate those competencies that have been identified as appropriate for curriculum workers. This report is based on the findings in the survey.

A letter was mailed to universities and schools requesting information on the competency-based preparation of curriculum workers. A total of 29 individuals responded to the letter. Eighteen responses contained information regarding competency-based programs for curriculum workers. Two of the 18 respondents represented state ASCD groups, seven represented groups of faculty members at universities, one was received from a county board of education. Of the 18 responses providing information, two represented USOE funded projects and one represented Title III funding. See Table 1 for a listing of types of responses.

Reports were received in a variety of ways, ranging from notes to letters to copies of reports that had been distributed or published.

Of the 29 responses to the letter, eighteen submitted information indicating considerable progress had been made in identifying competencies appropriate to and necessary for curriculum workers. A wide range of information was reported, from a position paper to a list of 192 competencies grouped in seven areas. There also was a wide range in the specificity with which the competencies

From individual professors	8
From representatives of university faculty groups	7
From state ASCD groups	2
From county school board	1
*Other	11
TOTAL	29

Table 1. Types of Responses Received

* Responses indicating letter was being forwarded to another party, indicating no information was available, etc.

were stated. Table 2 contains summary data on respondents and the areas/number of competencies.

Thirteen of the respondents provided information indicating that considerable research and discussion had been conducted in preparing a list of competencies. These 13 respondents grouped the competencies within areas. These ranged from 12 areas for one respondent to four areas for four respondents.

When these areas were compared, it was found that the inclusion of competencies in curriculum was listed most frequently. Competencies in community relations and in-service were next most frequent, followed by competencies in organization, evaluation, instruction, research, and communication.

As indicated earlier, several different groups responded to the letter that asked for information. A selection of four different types of responses is presented to illustrate the ways in which competencies were identified. These four types that follow include a state ASCD group, a group of university professors, a funded research activity, and research directed primarily through the initiative of a single professor.

1. *State ASCD Group*

The New York ASCD identified 178 competencies that were grouped in four areas (coordination of curriculum planning and development, definition and application of curriculum theory, designing and applying curriculum research, and providing for the in-service needs of the staff).

The Committee on Professionalization for the NYASCD was formed in 1967. In 1973 the Committee published recommendations for the preparation of curriculum workers in *Impact* (Volume 9, Number 1, pp. 18-22).

Groups	Descriptions
Minnesota ASCD	Certification requirements; 4 areas
New York ASCD	4 areas and 178 competencies
Thomas County School Board	6 areas and 82 competencies for principals
University of Texas	7 areas and 27 competencies for funded special education
University of Pittsburgh	4 areas and 3 levels in each area
University of Minnesota	5 competencies for planning educational change
University of Missouri	5 areas, 5 contexts, and 33 competencies for funded special education
University of Maryland	12 areas and 82 competencies
SUNY—Buffalo	4 areas and 178 competencies based on NYASCD
SUNY—Albany	Tasks for superintendent and consultant
Individuals (Professors)	
Hunkins, University of Washington	Position paper, 8 areas
Myers, Oklahoma State University	17 competencies
McCleary, University of Utah	7 goals and 70 competencies for principals
Bishop, University of Georgia	6 areas and 49 competencies
Phillips, Kent State University	4 areas and approximately 17 competencies
Olson, Temple University	6 competencies
Schunte, University of Wyoming	3 competencies
Ahrens, University of Florida	7 areas and 192 competencies

Table 2. Description of Received Information

2. *Group of University Professors*

A faculty committee at the University of Maryland developed a system through which curriculum workers gained levels of competence, depending on the position for which they were being prepared. There was a level of common learning for everyone, specialized learning for those preparing for positions such as curriculum generalists or media specialists, and further specialization in areas such as curriculum professors, public school administrators, supervisors, educational technologists, or instructional materials.

The program listed 82 competencies grouped in 12 areas, with examples of ways to obtain experience for meeting the competencies.

The report provided the diagram shown in Table 3 to illustrate the levels of learning.

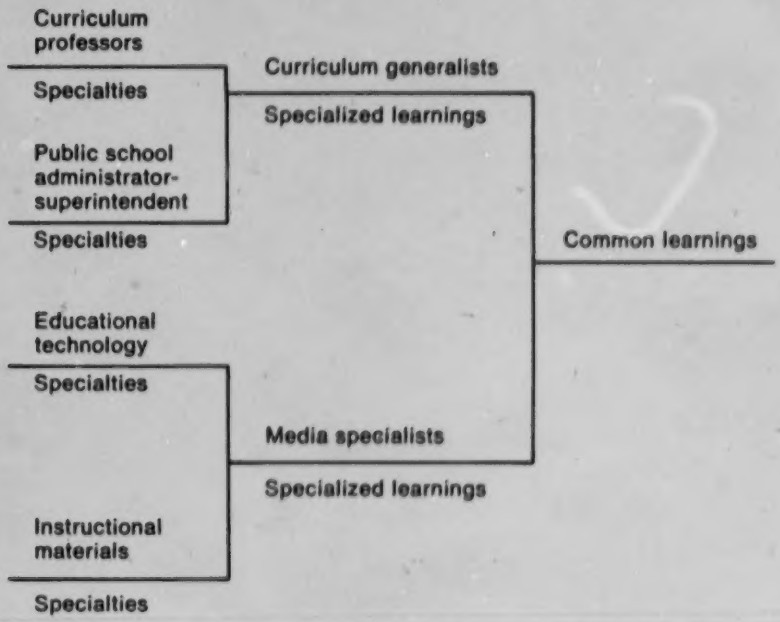

Table 3. Levels of Learning for Curriculum Workers

3. *Funded Research Activity*

The University of Missouri-Columbia, through a USOE grant to develop a training program for special education curriculum specialists, developed a 5″ x 5″ matrix of "Context" (curriculum, instruction, materials and media, communication processes, support systems) and "Functions" (evaluating, developing, training, advising, support systems). Interviews and a review of the literature identified 400 competencies. These were reduced to 100 by field testing and combining items. Seven hundred and twenty educators in 11 states were asked to rate the competencies, to develop the 5″ x 5″ matrix, and to prepare materials to assist students in acquiring the competencies.

4. *Research Directed Primarily by a Professor*

Professor L. E. McCleary, University of Utah, developed a preparatory program for principals that included 70 competencies grouped in seven areas (climate, public relations, staff personnel, instruction, programs and planning, student personnel, management).

A system model was prepared for the development of a competency-based curriculum. A survey of the literature assisted in identifying and grouping competencies. These data permitted their ranking by using the mean as the "index of importance."

ASCD Working Group Method

The list of competencies that was provided by the respondents was coded and typed on 3" x 5" cards. The coding system identified the person(s) who prepared the competency, the category under which it was listed, and the order in which it was listed under the category. This coding and placing all competencies on cards permitted further examination for duplication, differences, etc., while not losing the identity of the person(s) preparing them.

First, all competencies that were reported under a similar heading were combined. This produced stacks of cards under the following headings:

Curriculum
In-service
Community relations
Evaluation
Organization
Instruction
Research
Communication
Other

Because respondents grouped the competencies in a variety of categories (from four to 13 categories) there were some competencies that could, on inspection, be placed in a more specific category. Thus, the decision was made to review each competency and attempt to place it in the category that best described its area of concern.

From this sorting, competencies were grouped into the categories in Table 4.

Two additional categories ("Reporting" and "Working with Groups") were developed but later discarded, and these competen-

Category	Number of Competencies Listed
Curriculum	103
Instruction	62
Organization	34
In-service	215
Administration	145
Leadership	107
Evaluation	118
Research	96
Community relations	31
Communications	56
TOTAL	967

Table 4. Categories In Which Competencies Were Grouped

cies were combined with the categories of "Administration" and "Instruction" respectively.

This grouping included such a range of competencies in each category that additional readings were considered necessary. For example, competencies in the category "Curriculum" ranged from knowledge of theories, philosophies, and social forces to skills in developing a curriculum.

Category	Subcategory	No. of Competencies and (Subtotals)
Curriculum	Theory	18
	Philosophy	9
	Goals	19
	Objectives	20
	Construction	27 (103)
Instruction	Basic information (theory of instruction, etc.)	30
	Applications to instructional improvement	22
	Methods of Implementation	10 (62)
Organization	Knowledge and skills (systems, flow charts)	17
	Processes	11
	Attitudes toward organization	6 (34)
In-service	Personal characteristics to facilitate in-service	53
	Administrative responsibilities in in-service	38
	Skills and applications	106
	Development of leaders	12
	Materials in in-service	6 (215)

Category	Subcategory	No. of Competencies and (Subtotals)	
Administration	Management skills	28	
	Financial and budgetary responsibilities	21	
	Facilities	10	
	Personnel (instructional and non-instructional)	24	
	Materials	14	
	Student accounting and services	10	
	Instructional programs (6) (12) (3)	17	
	Reporting (board, parents, for feedback)	21	(145)
Leadership	Personal attributes	43	
	Change processes	38	
	Resources identification (human/material)	18	
	Leadership with/for students	8	(107)
Evaluation	Knowledge and skills in evaluation	67	
	Application of evaluation (programs, objectives)	29	
	Application of evaluation (personnel)	12	(118)
Research	Knowledge and skills	29	
	Applications in working with staff	9	
	Problem identification	14	
	Design, constraints	26	
	Collection and analysis of data	12	
	Identifying conclusions, reporting, using results	6	(96)
Community relations	Community expectations and needs	2	
	Community involvement in programs	19	
	Involvement of curriculum worker in community	2	
	Community contacts, information dissemination	8	(31)
Communications	Theories and basic knowledge needed	22	
	Applied skills necessary to communicate	25	
	Activities in communication	9	(56)
		967	(967)

Table 5. Categories, Subcategories, and Number of Competencies

Repeated reading and sorting of the competencies resulted in subcategories within each category. The categories and subcategories are shown in Table 5.

Competencies under each of the 44 subcategories were examined for possible duplication. However, because of differences in phrasing it was not possible accurately to identify identical competencies. Under each category, however, an attempt was made to sequence the competencies in order of complexity and/or topic.

Summary

Of the 29 responses to a request for information on competencies for curriculum workers, 18 respondents submitted lists of competencies that had been identified in various ways. These competencies were usually grouped under categories such as "Curriculum," "In-service," and "Community Relations."

Because not all respondents used the same categories for grouping the competencies that were submitted, there were some competencies that could be placed under a more specific category. Thus, the 967 competencies were coded for identification and grouped by those categories that seemed most appropriate. Additional readings of the cards permitted further subgrouping under each category.

Several respondents indicated levels of expertise appropriate for various careers as curriculum workers. For example, one respondent indicated his submitted competencies were for principals, another indicated some were basic to several positions, and others for specific positions such as curriculum professors. In most instances, the various levels of expertise were inferred by the kind of knowledge expected and the types of applications.

To illustrate the various categories and position referents, the diagram shown in Table 6 was developed.

If each cell contained the competencies identified by the appropriate category and grouped by the subcategories, the illustration would be a rather complete summary of the survey.

The total list of competencies gave a very detailed description of actual and proposed preparation programs for curriculum workers, as viewed by respondents. Considerable effort was expended by several experts in identifying these competencies; and, there was general agreement regarding the necessary areas of competence. Yet, variance seemed to be in the degree of specificity with which the competencies were described and the level of learning expected of the student.

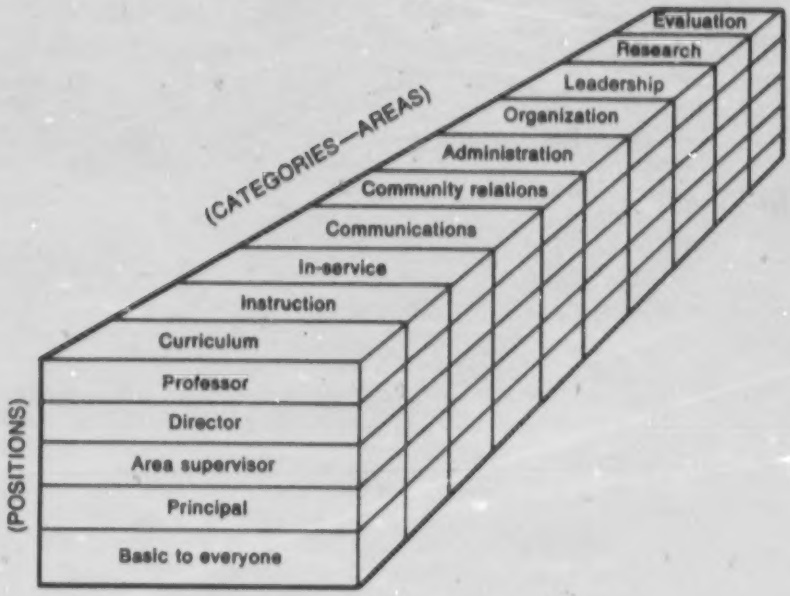

Table 6. Illustration of the Various Categories and Position Referents

Based on information in this study, there seemed to be or actually was:

1. Agreement that curriculum workers should be competent in curriculum, instruction, in-service, leadership, organization, administration, research, evaluation, communications, and community relations;

2. Information available on levels of competency for various specialties within the general heading of "curriculum workers";

3. A number of competencies available that were appropriate for curriculum workers; and,

4. Information that illustrated ways in which these competencies could be reached.

The accurate description of responsibilities of curriculum workers has not been available to this date. If the compiled list

accurately reflected the necessary competencies of curriculum workers at several levels, perhaps there could be an opportunity to develop more systematic preparatory and certification programs and more adequately describe the curriculum workers' responsibilities to school patrons, board members, and colleagues in other areas of education. These competencies could eventually provide valuable information to a number of educators, particularly to professors who are charged with the preparation of curriculum workers.

4 The curriculum worker today

DONALD J. CHRISTENSEN

WHO IS THE CURRICULUM WORKER TODAY? What are the tasks, concerns, satisfactions, and career lines of the curriculum worker? Where does the curriculum worker's role fit in the scheme of things within the educational milieu? What does the curriculum worker expect in the future? These were a few of the questions that prompted the development and delivery of a questionnaire to a sample of curriculum workers across the United States.

The survey attempted several things. It was an effort to identify details such as curriculum workers' tenure in education, tenure in curriculum worker roles, degrees, job titles, and where curriculum worker positions fit within the school district organization. The survey attempted to capture curriculum workers' perceptions of competencies and confidence necessary to fill their curriculum worker role, and to assess curriculum workers' perception of their role among board of education, administrators, teachers, and the community. Furthermore, curriculum workers were asked to speculate upon achievements, problems, and their general observation of the role as they saw it.

Five hundred curriculum workers presently holding curriculum leader positions in public school districts were randomly selected from the membership of ASCD. Fifty percent of those receiving survey forms completed and returned them after the first mailing. A second mailing produced an additional 15 percent return of completed survey forms. The third mailing brought responses from 13 percent (67) of the sample. In total, 392 survey forms were completed and returned. Survey forms were mailed under a cover letter from Gordon Cawelti, Executive Director of ASCD. See appendix for a copy of the instrument used (pp. 85-86).

A preliminary summary of 100 completed surveys was prepared for the report to the membership at a Special Session during the national ASCD Annual Conference in New Orleans in March 1975. Subsequent to the Annual Conference, the entire 392 survey forms were analyzed.

The first 20 items were objective and required straightforward summarizing. The four remaining items required a substantial amount of analysis in order to bring some useful summary to many and varied responses.

Findings

The summarized data are reported for each of the 24 items on the questionnaire.

Position Title

Curriculum workers exist with a variety of titles. Respondents indicated 17 titles other than superintendent. The most frequently named title for curriculum worker, indicated by 22 per cent of the respondents, was director or coordinator with some specialty such as elementary or secondary education. In all, 35 percent of the respondents indicated the title of director or coordinator. The next most frequently named title was assistant superintendent. Assistant superintendent combined with assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction accounted for 29 percent of the respondents. Other titles included consultant, specialist, supervisor, or chairperson.

Years in Present Position

A small portion (16 percent) of respondents stated that they had been in that position for more than 10 years. About one-fourth (24 percent) of the respondents indicated they had been in curriculum positions from six to ten years. Hence, well over half (60 percent) of curriculum workers reported being in curriculum workers' positions five years or less. The modal response was two years. Fourteen percent indicated being in the position for two years, and 12 percent indicated 1 year.

History of the Position

Not only was tenure in the position recent, but also the length of time the position existed was recent. About one-third (34 percent) of curriculum worker positions had existed ten years or longer

and 40 percent of the curriculum workers' positions had existed for five years or less.

Areas of Responsibility

A majority (60 percent) of curriculum workers reported having responsibility for all curriculum areas and grade levels in the school district. The remainder (40 percent) were distributed in seven other areas, noting most frequently curriculum responsibilities in secondary (15 percent) or elementary (12 percent) grade levels. Table 1 was prepared to describe the data more completely.

	Percent of Respondents	Curriculum Area
1.	9%	Secondary (grades 7-9, 6-12, 7-12)
2.	6%	Secondary (10-12)
3.	12%	Elementary (K-5, K-6, K-7, 1-6)
4.	1%	Preschool (includes K and elementary)
5.	4%	K-8 and 1-8
6.		Limited Subject Area
	1%	Secondary
	1%	Elementary
	4%	K-12
7.	2%	Other arrangements
	40%	Total of varied areas of curriculum responsibilities

Table 1. Areas of Curriculum Responsibilities Excluding K-12 and all Grade Levels

Task Description of Position

In field testing the instrument, 12 areas emerged as the most frequently mentioned descriptors of curriculum workers' tasks. These descriptors and their frequency are summarized in Table 2. Other task descriptors were so infrequently mentioned as to be negligible.

On the questionnaire, curriculum workers indicated those tasks named by these descriptors that required their attention. The most frequently mentioned area was in-service programs, mentioned by 94 percent of respondents. In nearly equal frequency were program evaluation and staff meetings. The most infrequently mentioned area requiring attention from the curriculum director was the area of teacher negotiations. About one in five curriculum workers was involved in this emerging aspect of educational management. The

Curriculum Task Descriptor	Percent of Respondents Indicating Involvement in Curriculum Task Area
Budget	69%
Community relations	71%
Developing standards	75%
Federal programs	62%
In-service programs	94%
Program evaluation	90%
Staff meetings	83%
Teacher evaluations	59%
Teacher negotiations	21%
Teacher supervision	67%
Testing	59%
Other categories	34%

Table 2. Summary of Curriculum Worker Task Areas

grouping of areas for curriculum workers' tasks seemed to fall into five distinct categories, by frequency of mention:

1. In-service programs (94 percent), program evaluation (90 percent), and staff meetings (83 percent)
2. Developing standards (75 percent)
3. Budget (70 percent), community relations (71 percent), and teacher supervision (67 percent)
4. Federal programs (62 percent), summer programs (63 percent), teacher evaluation (60 percent), and testing (60 percent)
5. Negotiations (22 percent).

Title of Supervisor

The majority (55 percent) of curriculum workers reported directly to the superintendent. Eighteen percent of the respondents reported to an assistant superintendent and 12 percent reported to a director. The remaining 15 percent of the respondents named various other persons in the school organization.

Tenure in the District

Many curriculum workers were relatively new to the educational scene. About one-fourth (23 percent) reported that they were in their particular district less than five years. Forty percent said that they were in the district 10 years or less. The remaining (60 percent) distributed evenly over a range from 11 years to over 30 years in the district.

Years as Professional Educator

Forty-two percent of curriculum workers indicated that they were in professional education from 20 to 29 years. Nearly the same number (38 percent) were in the profession for up to 19 years. Thirty-three percent were in education for 10 to 19 years. Twenty percent of the respondents were in the profession beyond 30 years.

Future Position

A majority (57 percent) of curriculum workers expressed no aspiration to other positions in education. Among those who indicated an aspiration to other positions, there was a variety of responses. Eighteen percent aspired to the superintendency. Five percent aspired to higher education. Other infrequently mentioned aspirations included principal, consultant, or coordinator.

Previous Positions

Teaching, administration, and supervision were generally the most common educational positions previously held by curriculum workers. About two-thirds of curriculum workers taught up to ten years; 30 percent taught for about five years; and, 36 percent taught for six to ten years. All respondents indicated that they had classroom teaching and administrative experience. A small proportion had taught for 15 years or more. About half (47 percent) had up to ten years administrative experience and the remainder had up to 20 years experience. About half the respondents did not indicate the years of experience in supervision. Of those who reported experience in supervision, about one-fourth had less than five years supervision and the others distributed evenly over 20 years. Fifteen percent had less than five years in any kind of other experience.

The respondents also reported their most recent previous position. Curriculum workers reported entry to the position from a variety of educational positions. About one-fourth indicated teaching (23 percent). The next most frequently mentioned categories were that of principal (21 percent) and director or coordinator (15 percent). Other areas included supervisor, consultant, counselor, and certain academic areas.

Current Certification

Responses to the question on certification were so varied as to defy simple summarization. Responses included various descriptors for teacher, principal, supervisory, general administration, special administration, superintendency, and various combinations

in those certified categories. Clearly no uniformity of certification requirement existed across the nation.

Preparation, Schooling

The doctorate, Ph.D., or Ed.D. was held by 28 percent of the curriculum workers. Approximately two-thirds (62 percent) had a master's; 6 percent had a bachelor's; and, 4 percent indicated other degrees. Among those holding the doctorate, most earned the degree recently. Fifteen percent of the respondents earned their doctorate in the 1970's; 9 percent earned the doctorate in the 1960's; and, about 3 percent earned it in the 1950's or earlier. Twenty-seven percent of the respondents received their MA in the 1960's, 21 percent in the 1950's, and 6 percent in the 1970's. Twelve percent of the respondents held the doctorate in administration and curriculum; 9 percent held the doctorate in administration; and, about 4 percent held a doctorate in subject specialization. The field for the master's degree was similarly divided. Eleven percent were in administration and curriculum; 29 percent were in administration; and, 4 percent were in psychology and guidance. Seventeen percent had an MA in a subject area of specialization.

Perceptions on Competence, Confidence, and Others' Perceptions

The survey included seven items dealing with the curriculum workers' perceptions of competencies, confidence, and the curriculum worker's role generally. Respondents were asked to rate these items along a seven point ranking scale; 1 very low and 7 very high. Eighty percent of responses regarding competency and confidence were either 5, 6, or 7. That is to say, respondents felt quite competent and confident to address the demands of curriculum work. Curriculum workers expressed their perception of the importance of the curriculum worker's role more cautiously than they did that of their competency and confidence. Approximately one-third (35 percent) rated the community as seeing the curriculum worker's role as important (either 5, 6, or 7). About two-thirds of the respondents suggested that the Board of Education, teachers, and superintendent perceived the curriculum worker's role as important, rating those items as 5, 6, or 7.

Curriculum Decisions

Participants were asked to report their most successful curriculum decision in the past 12 months. About three-fourths of the

respondents in the survey answered this item. Twenty-three percent did not respond. Those who did respond indicated that successful curriculum decisions seemed to be in three areas: those dealing with persons, that is the staff or the community; those dealing with the specific subject matter in the schools' curriculum; and activities that would be of a general curriculum nature not including either of these other two categories. About two out of every five curriculum workers (37 percent) saw their most successful curriculum decision as directly involving content areas. Examples of responses included such phrases as "extended vocational curriculum," "new elective programs—senior high English," "implement S.C.I.S. program," "changing science," "establish career education," "initiate algebra I," "elementary physical education," "including reading courses in English curriculum," "develop values in education," and the like.

About one in five curriculum workers (19 percent) cited activities dealing with staff and community as areas for the most successful curriculum decision. Such things were cited as "involve all teachers in curriculum development," "curriculum council development," "an entirely new system of reporting to parents," "in-service training for teachers," and the like. Activities in the general category showed quite a variety of responses which included: "developing a unified management system," "initiate middle school concept," "revise all curriculum into 60 day periods," "develop mini-unit guides," and "change from norm-referenced to criterion-referenced objectives."

Critical Problems

Curriculum workers were asked to comment on what were perceived as the most critical curriculum problems during the next five years. A small portion of respondents (16 percent) gave no answer. Responses seemed to fall into six general categories as follows:

1. Matters of a general educational nature dealing with views on educational procedures, policies, goals, or mission
2. Issues related to the social order
3. Specific educational or content areas
4. Issues related to finances and enrollment
5. Relationship with teachers, administration, and the public generally
6. Evaluation.

The most frequently mentioned area dealt with general educational policy or mission (Category 1). Over one-fourth of the respondents (27 percent) cited concerns in this area as having the gravest implications in the future. Such things were referred to as "matching curriculum to personal learning style," "converting from traditional to contemporary," "changing the teacher's role to one of learning facilitator," "conservatism," and, often mentioned was the area of "alternatives." Other topics included: how content or elements of the curriculum were established, and "moving from discipline-dominated to an issue-oriented curriculum." Numerous comments were made about changing toward an "open curriculum." A new curriculum to address "values," "open space education," was named. Yet, other topics included "individualizing instruction on a developmental continuum," "psycholinguistic philosophy," "awareness education," "relating learning theory to instruction," and "return to perceived traditionalism in education."

Category 2, involving nearly one-fourth (23 percent) of respondents dealt with social issues including general trends in society. Social problems involved about 10 percent of responses, including desegregation, integration, racism, changing communities, and migration of differing cultural groups in the community.

Category 3, cited most frequently by 16 percent of respondents, dealt with specific educational needs in content areas. Those areas included reading and language arts, vocational offerings, textbook selection, consumer education, career education, metric system, mathematics, and the like.

Category 4 included references by 13 percent of respondents. They mentioned declining enrollments and financially related problems.

In Category 5, comments dealt with people relationships, such as staff, administration, parents, teachers, and the public generally. Such items were cited as: "involving the community and staff in curriculum review," "determining who makes curriculum decisions," and "parental support for education." In this category, several references were noted about negotiations as inhibiting interaction with the community and interfering with curriculum planning. The last category dealt with evaluation. Six percent of respondents indicated that evaluation was an essential problem, naming either evaluation of teacher performance, curriculum, or instruction.

Deterrents to Progress

Curriculum workers were asked to describe that which detracted from the tasks and functions of the curriculum worker. By far the most frequent (57 percent) response dealt with organizational matters including such things as a "great number of meetings," "irrelevant meetings," "lack of administrative support," "unnecessary and great quantities of paper work" in the form of "forms, reports, and the like be prepared," "inadequate staff or other kinds of resources to carry out curriculum work," and other assigned tasks reported as unrelated to curriculum planning.

The other area that received notable response (16 percent) dealt with matters that were classified as the attitudes and the behavior of other people relating to the educational scene. Examples of things cited were the "attitude of the community toward education," "limits in decision-making latitude," "employer relations due to contracts," and "pressures" from various groups in the community. (One curriculum worker cited himself as the greatest distraction!) One respondent added that "most administrators are not capable of dealing with philosophy, psychology, and program development, consequently they are survival oriented." Another response noted the "political and social aspects" of the school system and the "power of hierarchy." A portion (20 percent) cited no distraction.

General Comments

The final item on the survey asked simply for "other comments about curriculum." A very few respondents (29 percent) commented, covering a variety of areas. Some responses dealt with concern over funding, concern that the curriculum worker's role in curriculum planning generally was not understood by teachers and administrators, and that the need for curriculum planning was not recognized. There was concern that schools addressed incorrect and inappropriate issues. Schools were not directed toward greater humanizing activities, and activities concerned with the overall development of children. Schools needed to humanize. There were comments by some (about 4 percent) noting satisfaction with the job, that the job was rewarding and that it was an exciting role.

A noticeable similarity in all comments on this item called for leadership in curriculum planning. Representative of responses calling for leadership are "we need a state ASCD"; "ASCD needs to take the lead in curriculum planning"; "things need to be prior-

itized"; "curriculum is like the weather, they all talk about it but what commitment do we have to improving it"; "we need a simpler system for reporting, evaluating, and using data concerning where we are and to determine where we hope to arrive"; "who looks at the total curriculum for the child?"; "we must have realistic goals and provide leadership"; "curriculum hucksters within and outside the profession"; "there is a great need to organize curriculum"; "we need leadership badly"; and, "we have no curriculum development program." Other comments illustrate the diversity of response: "it's great"; "one hell of a big job"; "curriculum is not as important as staff development and the implementation of curriculum"; "rural community education in mid-America is very ingrown and out-of-step with the world 100 miles away"; and, "curriculum is an exciting field, I love the challenge."

In summary, curriculum workers were veteran educators, recently entering the curriculum worker role. Furthermore, a clear majority of curriculum workers saw their position as a career position and did not aspire to further heights in the traditional education hierarchy. Curriculum workers were experienced teachers and administrators. The major proportion of curriculum workers hold graduate degrees, but only a small proportion hold the doctorate (Ph.D. or Ed.D.). Most curriculum workers rated their confidence and competency high.

Curriculum workers cited accomplishment in specific content areas (reading, mathematics, language arts) as their greatest accomplishment over the past year. However, when looking to problems and issues of the future, some curriculum workers saw the greatest problems in social and financial issues. A greater number of workers viewed problems in educational orientation or policy involving what education should be, and cited a general lack of leadership in curriculum planning. Generally curriculum workers were oriented to a wide perspective dealing with the role and mission of education, but circumstances forced curriculum workers to cite as their greatest achievements those dealing with specific content areas.

Curriculum workers perceived that boards of education, teachers, and administrators generally understood the importance of curriculum planning but that communities did not understand this function. If this perception were accurate, there would be small wonder why community pressure often exists for the curriculum workers' termination when enrollments and revenues decline.

Within the organization of school districts the curriculum worker's role was relatively new. A number of curriculum workers recently received the doctorate in curriculum planning or administration. It seemed likely that the curriculum worker was most vulnerable when a district faces cutbacks due to lack of leadership and public support, newness of the role, and recent entry of people into the position.

Undoubtedly, a most telling finding of this survey involved the status of certification among curriculum workers. At best, the situation was chaotic. There was no uniform certification among curriculum workers. Furthermore, there was no suggestion of even the slightest evidence of commonality insomuch as the name applied to curriculum worker certification. Curriculum workers appeared to labor under certification classes as numerous as the states and educational agencies themselves.

The curriculum workers' role, and the organizational dimensions of that role were unclear. A major effort needs to be launched to address this matter. Suggestions for further action include:

1. Exerting leadership in the definition and clarification of curriculum planning as an imperative to quality educational programs
2. Articulating the curriculum workers' role in curriculum planning
3. Forwarding uniform standards for training and certification of curriculum workers.

5 Summary and recommendations

EUGENE BARTOO, CHARLES A. SPEIKER, ALLAN STURGES

THIS FINAL SECTION contains a summary of the previous research and thinking on the topics: the field of curriculum, curriculum practice, and certification. Each summary contains a status statement and is followed by an argued case or what ought to be. Each argued case is followed by a set of recommendations. The difference between the argued case and the set of recommendations is one of immediacy of action requested. The recommendations are calling for near future activity. The argued case describes a more far-reaching idealized state.

Curriculum Field

Current Status

The curriculum field is much maligned. The sources of the criticism come from inside as well as outside the field. The objects of the criticism range from the methodology of the field to the quality of the work of the field. Every area of endeavor suffers criticism and indeed self-criticism is often taken to be evidence of the vigor and conscience of that area. The amount and type of criticism can also be symptomatic of fundamental malaise. The point, however, is not to determine whether the curriculum field is terminally ill, but to indicate the areas of criticism most relevant to the professionalization of the curriculum leader.

One such area concerns the identity of the field. Many attempts have been made to establish the boundaries of the field using many different forms of inquiry. For example, boundaries have been established as logical consequences of certain definitions of "curric-

ulum," "instruction," and "learning." Surveys have been made of what curriculum people do, or should do, of what is written in curriculum texts, and of what types and kinds of curriculum courses are taught. The level of disagreement between and among the outcomes of such studies makes it very difficult to reach an acceptable understanding of the means of entry to the field, to establish canons of appropriate (good) activity in the field, to create vehicles of communication among workers in the field.

Another area concerns the effectiveness of the field. In the case of curriculum, effectiveness is used in the sense of its influence upon educational settings. The field has acted in ways similar to other fields. People have tried to gain more influence by the use of political means to gain power, the explication of competencies to demonstrate expertise, and the use of metaphors (for example, chemical) to argue for an ingredient that can be supplied (for example, curriculum worker as catalyst). The lack of influence of a field has direct consequences affecting the number of seekers of the knowledge of the field which determines the number of teachers, researchers, and practitioners in the field.

The Argued Case

The argued case is quite direct: if the curriculum leader is needed, then the leader ought to be a product of the curriculum field.

There must, however, be good reason for the above. The good reason involves both the identity of the field and the effectiveness of the field. The identity of the field determines what knowledge (in the broadest sense) the potential curriculum leader obtains and the effectiveness of the field determines how that knowledge is enhanced. The curriculum field cannot create the need for the curriculum leader, but can only react to the need.

It is suggested that the curriculum field become more agreeably defined *from the perspective of the curriculum leader.* The necessary accompanying suggestion is that the curriculum field be more effective *in its influence upon educational settings.* Each suggestion is dependent upon the other. The latter helps determine the relevance of the former and the former helps direct the object of the latter. Both suggestions do not exhaust the activities of the field. Alternative definitions of the field can and should be explored and non-utilitarian activities can and should take place.

Recommendations

There are several possibilities within each of the areas of field definition and effectiveness; only a couple are made here. The following recommendations and those in the other sections of this chapter would go far toward professionalizing the curriculum leader.

As regards field definition:

Determine the organizational implications of the various alternative definitions of "curriculum—instruction—administration—teaching."

As regards field effectiveness:

The field can be more informed of curriculum practice by encouraging and rewarding the participation of university persons in the curriculum deliberation of schools and encouraging and rewarding the participation of existent curriculum leaders in the education of future curriculum leaders.

The field should seek to establish standards of scholarship. Those standards also can recognize and relate to an applied function of curriculum scholarship.

Field of Curriculum Practice

Current Status

Chance or lack of conscious and deliberate activity on the part of curriculum leaders seems generally to characterize much of the curriculum activity in public schools. Most curriculum leaders are recent arrivals to positions that have been newly created or activated. These leaders often lack any formal preparation in the field of curriculum and likewise expend large amounts of energy in matters other than curriculum or directly curriculum-related activities. Most curriculum leaders are not quite convinced of the importance of the curriculum position and many times feel as though little control over their own position and its designated activities exists.

When curriculum work and position descriptions are analyzed and compared to the total district expenditure of resources (time, money, board meeting activities) there is little doubt that the role of the curriculum leader and the concomitant contribution to the education of the American child is suspect at best.

When curriculum leaders are asked to further clarify obstacles

to or problems within their activity, they respond with concerns that are instructional or administrative in nature. However, most leaders are asking for a clarification of the role of the curriculum leader, minimal standards of preparation and training, and public sanctioning, that is, certification or a similar technique.

The Argued Case

It is assumed that to ensure that appropriate (conscious, deliberative, and significant) curriculum activity occurs in schools, the participants in the schooling enterprise ought to be aware of the importance of curriculum activity. Community members, boards, administrators, teachers, students, and support personnel ought to be able to articulate the importance of the curriculum activity and manifest this articulated importance in the activities and decicions made in the school system.

Curriculum leaders should initiate and maintain all curriculum activity from an informed position, accepting the preparation statements in the following section as guides to personal and professional growth. In addition, curriculum leaders should have in their possession an articulated position on their unique contribution to the education of children, and an accompanying description of functions, tasks, and activities that assist in the actualizing of the unique place of curriculum activity and the curriculum leader in schools.

In an attempt to guarantee that the aforementioned items are attended to, superintendents and boards of education at the state and local levels should establish guidelines for the development of an awareness of the curriculum activity in the individual schools. Further, each school district ought to have one person who has explicit responsibility for the planning, management, or coordination of curriculum activity whether this person is a superintendent in a small school, a building principal, or a teacher with a part-time assignment. The least that ought to be reasonably expected of school districts is that sustained, informed leadership guides curriculum activity.

Recommendations

Within the next calendar year, the following documents should be disseminated to every board president and superintendent at the state and local level and every aspiring or current curriculum leader:

1. A statement of the importance of the contribution of curriculum activity in schools;

2. A statement of the need to have curriculum activity follow from informed leadership;

3. A compilation of model job descriptions that follow from sound rationales and alternative management patterns.

Finally, every curriculum leader should attend at least one nationally approved training laboratory on the topic of curriculum leader skills if an honest self-evaluation so indicates.

Certification

Current Status

Although all schools have someone who is responsible for the curriculum, seldom is the person credentialed in curriculum. Smaller school boards usually assign the curricular responsibilities to the superintendent who assigns appropriate tasks to building principals. Larger systems have an assistant superintendent (or someone with a similar title) but the person is rarely prepared in curriculum. The usual route to certification is through existing certification requirements in administration. Specific courses and experiences in curriculum are not consistent among universities, nor is there a component of experience/field activities that are coupled to the program. In effect, most of the present curriculum leaders in schools were prepared as administrators, not as curriculum leaders.

There are few programs through universities that are specifically designed for the curriculum leader. Although there are several universities that list accredited programs in this area, most of the programs are primarily in administration.

There can be little doubt of the national interest in improving the preparation of curriculum leaders. The interest in certification was expressed from existing curriculum leaders (who deplored the minimal preparation they received in curriculum), from certification officers, and from university professors. An informal network for information exchange seems to exist through which various groups of specialists are sharing ideas in assisting the development of special advanced programs for curriculum leaders.

The Argued Case

To have a strong profession, the curriculum leader's advanced preparation should include completion of the doctoral degree with

heavy emphasis in curriculum. This program should enable (through required internships, etc.) the future leader to work toward solutions of existing problems and to provide leadership.

Preparatory programs should receive the approval of a national group of experts identified by a professional organization such as ASCD. The members of this approval/accrediting team should be recognized experts in the field, and the team should include both practitioners and professors. The development of appropriate criteria by this national group would assure minimal standards of excellence, while encouraging universities to exceed the minimal standards. This group would also assure that in their preparation all graduates of the program would have the assistance of practitioners.

Each profession has the responsibility to audit the preparation and conduct of its members. There can be little argument that the person who is responsible for the content that is learned by thousands of students must be responsible also to the employing body, such as the school board. It would also seem apparent that colleagues in the profession should audit the quality of conduct. An ethics committee at the national level would meet this concern.

Preparation in a profession or trade includes licensing. Licensing of curriculum leaders is one of the very few positions in education that does not require completion of a program that concentrates in the area in which the practitioner will work. It seems long overdue that the curriculum leader should be required to possess certification indicating that minimal standards in his or her area of expertise have been met.

Recommendations

Preparation is a combination of knowledge and implementation skills. A minimal program is necessary for entrance into any profession; continuing preparation and practice are mandatory for continued growth.

For the curriculum leader in each school system, the preparation should include formal course work and opportunities to practice required abilities to implement various areas of curriculum, instruction, and administration. Based on the findings of the committee, a curriculum leader would have:

1. EXPERIENCE
   a. Minimum of two years classroom teaching experience
   b. Minimum of one year leadership experience (such as depart-

ment chairperson, elementary or secondary principal, internship, supervisor)

2. PREPARATION
   a. Certification as a teacher
   b. Preparation in a related area (for example, additional preparation in elementary education)
   c. Completion or equivalent of an educational specialist degree leading to certification as a curriculum and instruction leader with courses and experiences in the following areas:
      (1). Curriculum, including the:
         (a). Theories of curriculum; models of curriculum development
         (b). Knowledge and ability to apply skills of social research, including problem identification and the collection and analysis of data, in program planning
         (c). Abilities to develop direction for a school system relating to local, state, and national needs
         (d). Possession of skills and abilities to construct educational programs
         (e). Abilities to identify appropriate criteria to evaluate programs
      (2). Instruction, including the
         (a). Abilities to apply the theories of instruction and supervision to the improvement of instruction
         (b). Knowledge of evaluative procedures to assume successful implementation of appropriate instructional procedures
         (c). Recognition of differences in style and learning rates of students with varying backgrounds and cultural, ethnic, social, economic, and religious backgrounds
      (3). Leadership, including
         (a). Processes and purposes of organization (organizational theory)
         (b). Management skills to provide the human and material resources for facilitating curricular and instructional changes
         (c). Abilities to prioritize, in relation to district/state/national goals, and possess decision-making

skills within a framework of sound human expertise and fiscal resources

(d). Leadership skills in mobilizing the talents and abilities of coworkers (human relations skills included here).

Certification Process

Based on the recommendations of the responses from certification officers and professors, the formal certification of curriculum leaders should be administered through an appropriate state department of education office. Certification should follow the completion of the recommended and filed program of studies for a curriculum leader from universities accredited and approved to offer the program and the degree level. Programs should be designed through the active participation of practicing curriculum leaders in the state, through their role as advisory committee members, participants, and co-workers in field activities and members of the evaluation team.

There should be a systematic sequence of courses, workshops, and institutes for curriculum leaders, to enable the continued upgrading of their preparation.

Finally, it is recommended that this monograph and in particular the contents of this section be disseminated to the following groups for their review, debate and eventual action:

1. ASCD Professors of Curriculum
2. NCATE Professors of Curriculum
3. State certification officers
4. Governance boards and membership of each ASCD affiliated unit
5. ASCD governance bodies and membership at large.

Where Do We Go from Here?

Subsequent steps should involve three major thrusts: validation, dissemination, and implementation. Substantive implementation will require preparation of a definitive description of quality performance in curriculum worker preparation areas. Dissemination should occur within ASCD membership as well as other networks which influence education.

The distribution of this document among ASCD members accounts for one aspect of dissemination. Beyond this, however, formal action by ASCD will be needed to provide the educational enterprise with these descriptions of curriculum worker certification, role, and function.

Key education committees in the U.S. Congress should be informed of curriculum worker role and function and certification recommendations. Legislation to include these recommendations should be requested. Congressional action should be requested to require states to incorporate these recommendations into regulation, legislation, and policies governing education in the states. Simultaneously, efforts should be launched to inform state education associations and education committees in state legislatures. The working group should begin immediate dialogue with the chief state school officers' association. Affiliated unit presidents should contact education committees in respective state legislatures. In all these cases, efforts should be directed to incorporate curriculum worker certification requirements and curriculum worker role and function into statutes and regulations governing education in the states.

Among universities preparing curriculum workers, ASCD should inform professors of curriculum of recommendations for certification and role and function. University programs should provide training experiences leading to competencies in recommended certification categories.

ASCD should become a resource agency to assist universities, state education associations (SEA's), and local education associations (LEA's) with implementation of curriculum worker role and function descriptions and certification requirements. This will require preparation of performance descriptors to indicate proficiency in each preparation area. In summary, the next steps would seem to require that ASCD generate an impact on the universities, SEA's, and LEA's with regard to curriculum worker role, function, and certification.

In conclusion, the role of the curriculum leader, as we view it, is to provide leadership and management expertise essential to planning, developing, implementing, and evaluating the curriculum. It is generally conceded that the curriculum leader must have the personal characteristics, professional preparation, and professional experience to assume that role.

6 An annotated bibliography

MAENELLE DEMPSEY AND LUCY DYER

THIS BIBLIOGRAPHY cites research and references dealing with curriculum, curriculum planning, and curriculum workers. Most entries are dated within the past five years. To reasonably limit the scope of the task, entries from school administration, supervision, teacher preparation, teacher competency, educational psychology, role theory, and organization theory were usually not included unless they contained specific reference to curriculum.

Entries were identified through the ERIC index, dissertation abstracts, and the general experience of committee members. The professors of curriculum were surveyed for their reactions to an early draft of the bibliography.

While this bibliography cannot be a complete listing of accumulated research and thought regarding curriculum, it will contribute to a definitive referent for curriculum workers, their role and function.

Books and Pamphlets

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Leadership Through Supervision.* 1946 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1946. Presents the earliest ASCD effort at a role description for the educational supervisor. Demonstrates the rhetoric of the "human relations" supervision of the 1940's.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Action for Curriculum Improvement.* 1951 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1951. Presents the tasks necessary for curriculum development. The connection between the tasks and the workers who accomplish the tasks is only implied.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Leadership for Improving Instruction.* 1960 Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1960. Reports on the possible applications of leadership

studies from sociology and management toward identifying role prescription for instructional leaders.

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. *Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director in a Climate of Change.* Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1965. Describes curriculum worker in terms of functions at various levels of educational organizations. Provides background for but does not include specific information on individual certification or institutional accreditation. Analyzes leadership responsibilities in an era of curricular reform.

George A. Beauchamp. *Curriculum Theory.* Third edition. Wilmette, Illinois: The Kagg Press, 1975. Discusses basic formulations critical to the efforts of the curriculum worker.

Warren G. Bennis. *Changing Organizations: Essays on the Development and Evolution of Human Organization.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966. Presents behavioral scientist's approach to analysis of organizations and patterns of change. Criteria for and roles of change agents are examined. Incorporates various schematic models and case studies. Notes provide excellent references.

Louise M. Berman. *Supervision, Staff Development, and Leadership.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971. Identifies process skills for curriculum workers and other school personnel. Skills parallel *New Priorities in the Curriculum*: perceiving, organizing and systematizing, communicating of personal meaning, showing concern, knowing, decision making, creating, and dealing with the ethical. Skills are presented as modified behavioral objectives with concomitant activities and hypotheses for testing.

Bruce J. Biddle and Edwin J. Thomas, editors. *Role Theory: Concepts and Research.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966. Analyzes the concept "role" by developing a categorical schema that describes and relates the variables that make up the concept. A major portion of the book offers readings of research studies to demonstrate the viability of the schema. The book is considered the most authoritative text on role theory in sociology.

Leslee J. Bishop. *Procedures and Patterns for Staff Development Programs.* Athens, Georgia: Center for Curriculum Improvement and Staff Development, 1975. Identifies competencies for those conducting staff development. Procedural handbook for staff development based on needs assessment. Good checklists and references.

Arthur Blumberg. *Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War.* Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1974. Researches the interaction between supervisors and teachers using a modified version of Flanders' teacher-student verbal interaction categories. Looks at supervision as an educational psychologist.

Richard W. Burns and Gary D. Brooks. *Curriculum Design in a Changing Society.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications, 1970. Views the instructional administrator's role in terms of coordination. Applies Katz and Kahn's functional system components to education. Derives implications from these interrelated functional roles for the school system in the process of curriculum reform.

A few premises are dated, for example, the continuing shortage of teachers. Chapter 23 by Abbott and Eidel is especially pertinent.

Raymond E. Callahan. *Education and the Cult of Efficiency.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1962. Studies the influence of scientific industrial management upon educational administration during the first two decades of the twentieth century. Particularly important for understanding the early thinking of Bobbitt.

Fred D. Carver and Thomas J. Sergiovanni. *Organizations and Human Behavior: Focus on Schools.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969. Collects and organizes the writings of organization theory as it applies to schools. Most of the readings are dated, but this is a good introduction to the neo human relations emphasis to school administration.

Joseph M. Cronin and Richard M. Hailer. *Organizing an Urban School System for Diversity.* Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1973. Integrates program and structure in describing the Boston School Department. Describes roles and responsibilities within the largely decentralized school system. Impact of community groups and federal projects noted.

Ronald C. Doll. *Curriculum Improvement: Decision-Making and Process.* Third edition. Boston, Massachusetts: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974. Describes desirable traits of an educational leader and states five tasks for curriculum leaders in chapter seven. Responsibilities are outlined along with competencies. Case studies are provided.

Peter Drucker. *Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1973. Reviews the current assumptions and practices of management. Some chapters particularly address the management of public agencies such as the school.

Kathryn V. Feyereisen, A. John Fiorino, and Arlene T. Nowak. *Supervision and Curriculum Renewal: A Systems Approach.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970. Uses systems models to define roles of curriculum council and show interface with other school system roles. Chapters four, five, and thirteen most pertinent.

N. L. Gage. *Teacher Effectiveness and Teacher Education: The Search for a Scientific Basis.* Palo Alto, California: Pacific Books, 1972. Stresses the need for and production of scientifically-based knowledge about teachers. Analyzes research on teaching using a two-dimensional paradigm for the exploration of concerns, issues, and questions on which researchers on teaching have focused.

John I. Goodlad and Maurice W. Richter. *The Development of a Conceptual System for Dealing with Problems of Curriculum and Instruction.* Los Angeles: University of California, Los Angeles Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1967. Shows that curriculum development derives from a set of values. Emphasizes importance of using consultant specialists. Follows rational curriculum construction model.

Neal Gross and Robert E. Herriott. *Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965. Explores the principalship and its role. Emphasis on improving teacher

performance. Based on findings of the National Principalship Study undertaken at Harvard in 1959. Indicates study's relationship to broader issues of role and organizational analysis and sociology of work and leadership.

J. Minor Gwynn. *Theory and Practice of Supervision.* New York: Dodd Mead & Company, 1961. Presents the intimate connection between curriculum planning and supervision. Chapter one sketches the historical development of models of supervision.

Andrew W. Halpin. *Theory and Research in Administration.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1966. Represents thematically the historical development of the "new movement" in educational administration. Sections of the book concern theory and its application to research in administration, reports of research in the field, verbal and nonverbal communication, and the relationship of the scientific method to the preparation of educational researchers.

Robert J. Harnack. *The Teacher: Decision Maker and Curriculum Planner.* Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1968. Reports on the use of the computer to aid the teacher in curriculum building. Presents a position on the primacy of the teacher in curriculum work and outlines the rights and responsibilities of teacher *vis à vis* curriculum.

Ben M. Harris and John D. King. *Special Education Supervisor Training Projects.* Austin: The University of Texas, revised 1975. Presents conceptual model for generating competencies and lists generic competencies for preparing instructional supervisors in special education. Provides a philosophical base for the competency approach.

Ben M. Harris. *Supervisory Behavior in Education.* Second edition. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975. Provides a conceptual framework for relating curriculum development to teaching and supervision in chapters 1 and 2.

Virgil E. Herrick. In: Dan W. Anderson, James B. Macdonald, and Frank B. May, editors. *Strategies of Curriculum Development.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965. Collects the thoughts of Herrick as they pertain to the development of curriculum. The work particularly deals with the elements of curriculum design.

Philip L. Hosford. *An Instructional Theory: A Beginning.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973. Reviews of instructional theory work including ASCD publications and those of Bruner culminating in the presentation of a general theory of instruction and explicit hypotheses regarding curriculum and instruction which should be tested by schools.

Dwayne Huebner. "The Leadership Role in Curricular Change." In: Marcella R. Lawler, editor. *Strategies for Planned Curricular Innovations.* New York: Teachers College Press, 1970. pp. 133-51. Describes curricular leaders' responsibilities in the following areas: knowledge of educational conditions, ability to exercise political influence, sensitivity to aesthetic environment, and cognizance of one's own humanness.

Bruce R. Joyce. "The Curriculum Worker of the Future." In: Robert M. McClure, editor. *The Curriculum: Retrospect and Prospect.*

The Seventieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: the Society, 1971. Views curriculum work as centering around the creation of human environments. Explicitly rejects the necessary connection of curriculum and schools as organizations.

Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil. *Models of Teaching.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972. Presents some 14 models for teaching behavior. Particularly useful for teacher education since it implies that different teaching styles can be used by the same teacher for different purposes. The chapter on curriculum planning gives insight as to the use of the models in schools.

O. W. Kapp and David L. Zufelt. *Personalized Curriculum Through Excellence in Leadership.* Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers & Publishers, Inc., 1974. Regards the supervisor as a change agent with impact on curriculum development. Methods of clinical supervision are described; and the authors discuss evaluation of the teacher, instructional program, and supervisory process. Supplemental readings are included.

Edward Krug. *Curriculum Planning.* Revised edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950. Answers the question, "What does it mean to work on curriculum?"

Marcella R. Lawler. *Curriculum Consultants at Work.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. Reports on the work of the curriculum consultants of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Arthur J. Lewis and Alice Miel. *Supervision for Improved Instruction: New Challenges, New Responses.* Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc., 1972. Clarifies relationships among functions and various functionaries, for example, the general supervisor, resource person, director of elementary or secondary education, and assistant superintendent for curriculum and instruction. Proceeds from theoretical delineation of curriculum, instruction, and teaching.

William H. Lucio and John D. McNeil. *Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1969. Describes three basic beliefs regarding supervision, presented in closely defined, rather specific terms. The book additionally serves as an information source regarding changing views of supervision and the varied roles associated with supervisory positions.

James G. March, editor. *Handbook of Organizations.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1965. Collects the classic articles on organizational theory.

Corine Martinez, compiler. *A Selected Bibliography for Professional Supervisory Competencies.* Ben M. Harris, editor. Austin, Texas: Special Education Supervisor Training Project, Department of Educational Administration, The University of Texas, 1975.

Ralph L. Mosher and David E. Purpel. *Supervision: The Reluctant Profession.* New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1972. Explores supervision field, including its historical origins and current research. Identifies skills inherent in supervision and various methods such as counseling and group work. Notes responsibility of supervision in the area of curricular innovation.

Donald A. Myers. *Decision Making in Curriculum and Instruction.* Melbourne, Florida: Institute for the Development of Educational Activities, Inc., 1970. Presents an intriguing argument for the administrator as a "procedural taskmaster."

National Society for the Study of Education. *The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum Construction.* Part I and Part II. The Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the Society. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1926. Identifies the principles of curriculum-making that signalled the beginning of curriculum as a formal area of study.

Louis J. Rubin. *Improving In-service Education: Proposals and Procedures for Change.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971. Collected readings around the task implied in the title. Suggests that in-service education can be approached in ways similar to the education of pupils.

Seymour B. Sarason. *The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971. Uses case studies to describe a model change process involving university and school cultures. Social psychology view of change.

J. Galen Saylor and William M. Alexander. *Planning Curriculum for Modern Schools.* New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974. Summarizes the current practice and thought on curriculum development. A standard text.

Joseph J. Schwab. *The Practical: A Language for Curriculum.* Auxiliary Series, Schools for the 70's. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1970. Argues the necessity of considering curriculum work as non-theoretical.

Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Fred D. Carver. *The New School Executive.* Toronto: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1974. Addresses the human aspects of educational administration. Examines organizational patterns in view of behavioral science research and pragmatic experience. Decision making is envisioned as a process that accommodates value, human, and organizational subsystems.

Edmund C. Short and George D. Marconnit. *Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum.* Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Publishing Co., 1968. Collects most readings on curriculum as a field. Caswell's article is the classic statement on the role and function of the curriculum worker.

Hilda Taba. *Curriculum Development: Theory and Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1962. Presents a comprehensive textbook on curriculum development from the Tyler rationale.

Daniel Tanner and Laurel N. Tanner. *Curriculum Development: Theory Into Practice.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1975. Examines the role of the teacher and supervisor in curriculum evaluation and improvement. Analyzes the curriculum field in the light of historic developments. Stresses the need for addressing macrocurricular problems through an aggregate model rather than focusing predominantly on microcurricular problems through a segmental curriculum model.

Ralph W. Tyler. *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction.* Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1950. Organizes curriculum work around four questions the schools must face.

Glenys G. Unruh. *Responsive Curriculum Development: Theory and Action.* Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1975. Presents a theory of curriculum development based upon a commitment to democratic ideals, humanistic values, and responsiveness to the needs of individuals and society. Shows how to unify sound theory and practice.

John R. Verduin, Jr. *Cooperative Curriculum Improvement.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967. Discusses how *all* persons in education may cooperate in curriculum improvement. Responsibility for curriculum improvement becomes the focus for all levels of educators.

L. Craig Wilson. *The Open Access Curriculum.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971. Reviews the essential problems to be faced in opening the access of students to knowledge in schools. The first half of the book is particularly appropriate.

Periodicals

Lawrence A. Cremin. "Curriculum Making in the United States." *Teachers College Record* 73 (2): 207-20; December 1971. Presents the argument that the reform movement of the 60's operated in ways similar to the early days of curriculum reform.

Walter Doyle. "'The Supervisor's Role in Negotiation': A Critique." *Educational Leadership* 27 (5): 475-79; February 1970. Contrasts professional and labor-management models of negotiation. Although in favor of supervisors and curriculum workers participating in negotiation, the author points out flaws in the professional negotiation process developed by the ASCD Commission on Problems of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers. Flaws stem from the commission's failure to explore the implications of defining these groups as professionals.

James K. Duncan. "Curriculum Director in Curriculum Change." *Educational Forum* 38: 51-77; November 1973. Fuses curriculum theory and role delineation. Identifies three areas of leadership expression: authority, power, and influence—each based on professional competence. Describes the interaction of each leadership area with the curriculum event.

James E. Eisele and Lutian R. Wootton. "Educating the Curriculum Specialist." *Educational Leadership* 29 (1): 50-55; October 1971. Suggests model for educating persons to implement a "problem-solving curriculum planning process." Defines four functions of the curriculum specialist and lists skills necessary to perform functions effectively. Training activities to develop each skill follow. Ties this into a field-based component.

Russell L. Hamm and William L. Walker. "Preparation of Curriculum Workers." *Educational Leadership* 28 (2): 69-71; October 1970. Recommends revisions of university preparation programs. Inspired by survey of Indiana curriculum workers. Emphasizes field-based experiences.

L. W. Hughes and C. M. Achilles. "The Supervisor as Change Agent." *Educational Leadership* 28 (8): 840-43; May 1971. Outlines strategies for supervisor of instruction to utilize in facilitating change.

Follows process model of change: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption.

Francis P. Hunkins. "New Identities for New Tasks." *Educational Leadership* 29 (6): 503-506; March 1972. Views curriculum director as systems and communications expert. C. D. assigned responsibility for coordination of other system members who develop and sequence curriculum and for coordination of research into process of education.

Robert E. Jennings. "The Politics of Curriculum Change." *Peabody Journal of Education* 49: 295-99; July 1972. Discusses curriculum worker as change agent and his areas of influence and power in the school and community. Diagram of school-political system accompanying text. Somewhat Machiavellian.

Mauritz Johnson, Jr. "Definitions and Models in Curriculum Theory." *Educational Theory* 17: 127-40; April 1967. Analyzes the concepts "curriculum" and "instruction" and develops the planning demands of each area.

Barbara T. Mason. "'Supervisor' or 'Curriculum Specialist'?" *Educational Leadership* 27 (4): 401-403; January 1970. Prefers term *curriculum specialist* to that of *supervisor*. Areas cited are consultation, negotiation, and accountability.

Walter A. Mickler, Jr. "New Roles Can Facilitate Change." *Educational Leadership* 29 (6): 515-17; March 1972. Suggests replacing supervisor with teacher educator and teacher evaluator for every school faculty. Mentions competencies and roles for each. Discusses their effect upon roles of other school system staff.

Franklin P. Morley. "Becoming an Instructional Leader." *Educational Leadership* 29 (3): 239-41; December 1971. Indicates personal traits and professional attributes requisite for effectiveness. Believes that professional competencies are acquired to a significant degree outside one's formal education and teaching experience. Includes coordination of supportive services and managing functional chronological cycles within the system as professional responsibilities.

James E. Rutrough. "Emerging Role of the Director of Instruction." *Educational Leadership* 27 (5): 521-25; February 1970. Reviews data from questionnaires sent to directors of instruction in Virginia. Information obtained concerned professional preparation, job roles, system organization, and instructional program.

Joseph Schwab. "The Practical: Arts of Eclectic." *School Review* 79 (4): 493-542; August 1971. Presents a course outline for developing the skills of instructional analysis.

Joseph Schwab. "The Practical 3: Translation Into Curriculum." *School Review* 81 (4): 501-22; August 1973. Recreates the necessity of the curriculum planning group and identifies the functions of the curriculum specialist.

Conrad F. Toepfer. "The Supervisor's Responsibility for Innovation." *Educational Leadership* 30 (8): 740-43; May 1973. Suggests guidelines for areas of supervisory involvement in identifying curricular needs, identifying local adaptations for proposed innovations, and assisting in complementary staff development. Urges teacher involvement.

Decker F. Walker. "The Curriculum Field in Formation: A Review of the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education." *Curriculum Theory Network* 4 (4): 263-80; 1975a. Reviews the assumptions and weaknesses of the foundations of the curriculum field.

Decker F. Walker. "Straining To Lift Ourselves." *Curriculum Theory Network* 5 (1): 3-25; 1975b. Presents prescriptions for a renewal of the curriculum field from the reality of the national scope of most curriculum development.

Fred H. Wood. "A Climate for Innovation." *Educational Leadership* 30 (6): 516-18; March 1973. Presents seven guidelines for the curriculum specialist's role in establishing a positive psychological climate for innovation. Based on research of Gross, Halpin, and Stein into characteristics of a desirable school climate.

Bob G. Woods. "The Preparation of Curriculum Specialists: An Analysis of the Opinions of Supervisors and Professors." *The Journal of Teacher Education* 22: 448-54; Winter 1971. Presents data from opinionnaire on designing a doctoral program for curriculum and instruction specialists. Respondents were curriculum professors and specialists. Areas considered were behavioral sciences, professional education, and internships.

Lutian R. Wootton, John C. Reynolds, Jr., and Jerrell E. Lopp. "Curriculum Content and Experiences: A Comparative Survey." *Educational Leadership* 31 (5): 431-34; February 1974. Gives follow-up on 1969 survey using same format as 1970 *Educational Leadership* article. Reports emergence of competency-based curriculum courses.

Lutian R. Wootton and Robert W. Selwa. "Curriculum: A Changing Concept." *Educational Leadership* 27 (7): 692-96; April 1970. Summarizes information from a survey of curriculum course offerings at teacher education institutions. Identifies course content, methods and materials used in these classes, and student population. Compares results with 1965 survey to predict trends.

Research Studies, Dissertations, Papers

Bruce J. Anderson. "Perceptions and Expectations of Certain Duties of the Director of Curriculum and Instruction as Determinants of Role Consensus, Role Conflict, and Role Ambiguity." Ph.D. dissertation. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1971. Presents data on curriculum director's role from superintendents, principals, supervisors, and teachers. Compares their perceptions with a previous study based on self-report data from curriculum directors. Anderson's respondents differed in perceiving the curriculum director as relatively uninvolved with writing, research, evaluation, personnel and supplementary services, school plant, public relations, and communications.

George A. Beauchamp and P. C. Conran. "Longitudinal Study in Curriculum Engineering." A paper presented at the annual meeting of AERA, Washington, D.C. (Northwestern University): March 1975. Describes the effects of the operation of a curriculum engineering system in a school system.

Harold Oliver Beggs. "An Analysis of the Role of Curriculum Administrators in First Class School Districts in the State of Washington." Ph.D. dissertation. Washington State University, 1972. Leads toward identification of competencies upon which to base certification. Task analysis outlines responsibility for curriculum development, in-service, guidance in selection of curricular materials, consultation, evaluation, communication, and input into budget decisions.

Ronald Allen Bretsch. "Perceived Role of the Curriculum and Instruction Coordinator as Related to the Presence of a Negotiated Agreement Role Description." Ed.D. dissertation. Albany: State University of New York, 1974. Presents categories of role functions for maintaining quality control, consulting, providing in-service, administering, and facilitating school-community cooperation. Advocates a negotiated role description.

Jose A. Cardenas. "Role Expectations for Instructional Supervisors as Expressed by Selected Supervisors, Administrators, and Teachers." Ph.D. dissertation. University of Texas at Austin, 1966. Investigates consensus within and among identified groups on supervisory job responsibilities which were designed to include curriculum development, in-service education, and organizing for instruction. The three groups show agreement on supervisor's role expectations and orientation.

Ronald Laurence Capasso. "A Role Expectation Analysis of a Curricular Generalist: A Case Study." Ed.D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1973. Compares role expectations to actual role performance using interviews, surveys of oral and written communications, and on-site observations. Found little congruence.

W. Arnold Cooper. "The Ideal Operational Role of the Secondary School Curriculum Director." Ph.D. dissertation. Gainesville: University of Florida, 1970. Considers self-perceived role of intraschool curriculum worker. Responses focus on relationships with other school personnel, task analysis, and qualifications for position.

D. Friesen and G. Knudsen. "Graduate Programs for Curriculum Specialists." Presented at the Annual Conference of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education, May 29, 1973. (Xeroxed.) Presents a ranking of behavioral science and professional education items for inclusion in program. Includes copy of instrument and cover letter.

Dominick Joseph Graziano. "The Curriculum Director as an Evaluator." Ph.D. dissertation. Carbondale: Southern Illinois University, 1971. Presents self-report data from questionnaire used to identify five aspects of evaluative role: (a) assisting professional personnel in the adoption of innovative programs and practices, (b) encouraging adoption of innovative programs and practices, (c) aiding in the interpretation of the evaluation of programs and practices, (d) accumulating data and developing information about various programs in other settings . . . , and (e) explaining the rationale for developmental programs.

Gary A. Griffin. "Curricular Decision Making in Selected School Districts." Ed.D. dissertation. Los Angeles: University of California, 1970. Tests Goodlad's delineation of curricular decision-making levels: societal, institutional, and instructional. Questionnaires were sent to

school system board members, administrators, supervisors, and teachers. Data showed a disparity between the institutional level decisions and the level of those persons making institutional decisions.

Gary A. Griffin and Ann Lieberman. *Behavior of Innovative Personnel.* Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, August 1975. Discusses characteristics of innovative educational personnel and factors that may affect innovative actions in the school setting. Speculates on behavior most appropriate to personnel considered to be innovative.

Billy Charles Hancock. "The Evolution of the Role of the Director of Curriculum." Ph.D. dissertation. Gainesville: University of Florida, 1971. Surveys literature focusing on relationship of curriculum director to other administrators, role, and curriculum tasks handled by other personnel. Includes suggestions for preparation of curriculum directors.

Howard Lee Harris. "Curriculum Leadership Behavior and Job Satisfaction: Their Relation to Structural Instability Within the Role-Set." Unpublished Ed.D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1974. Compares leadership behavior of assistant superintendent for curriculum with job satisfaction of middle level curricular personnel under him. Uses sociological orientation in examining role and status sets.

William R. Hartgraves. "The Relationship of Principal and Supervisor Leadership Variables to the Implementation of an Innovation as Influenced by Organizational Variables." Ph.D. dissertation. University of Texas at Austin, 1973. Investigates effect of supervisor's and principal's competencies on implementation of curricular innovations. Supervisor involvement showed a positive correlation.

Warner Martin Houth. "A Factor Analytic Study of the Role of the Regional Curriculum Consultant." Ph.D. dissertation. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1971. Uses Q-sort to examine role expectations held by local school districts personnel and the curriculum consultants themselves. District size affected role perceptions. Areas of consensus were conveying information on curriculum developments; providing in-service; and assisting teachers in preparing curriculum guides, developing and implementing units

Ellis Owen Jackson, Jr. "The Functions of the Director of Elementary Education as Perceived by the Superintendent of Schools, the Director of Elementary Education, and the Elementary Principal." Ph.D. dissertation. Columbia: University of Missouri, 1973. Presents data from the information sheet and questionnaires indicating many administrative and supervisory functions in addition to curricular concerns. Superintendent and director views are more similar than those of principal.

Michael Robert Jackson. "A Graduate Program for the Preparation of Directors of Instruction: A Performance-Based Approach." Ph.D. dissertation. Gainesville: University of Florida, 1971. Develops program from identification of seven task areas. Attendant competencies were the basis for learning components: formal courses, independent study, seminars, lab experiments, experimental activities, and field experience. Recommendations for process and product evaluation were specified.

Richard D. Kimpston. "A Competency-Based Preparation Program for Specialists in Curriculum and Instruction." *Competency-Based Education: Theory, Practice, Evaluation.* Athens: Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, University of Georgia, 1975. Stresses a rationale for a competency-based program, assumptions and processes in identifying competencies, strategies for competency identification and verification, assessment of program goals and objectives and plans for designing and implementing. (A paper presented at a conference on competency-based education, University of Georgia.)

Richard D. Kimpston, Marlene Mitchell, and William Stockton. "A Project for Defining Competencies for Curriculum and Instruction Personnel." Department of Curriculum and Instruction, College of Education, University of Minnesota, 1975. Identifies competencies in areas of assessing, designing, programming, implementing, and evaluating. Includes a survey to determine if competencies as perceived by College of Education faculty, public school and State Department of Education personnel. Project goals are to develop a competency-based curriculum, design a concomitant instructional system, develop a management system for the program, and establish compatible certification procedures.

Ivan Kleinman. "Organizing for Musical Growth in Public School Systems: A Delineation of the Role and Function of the Music Curriculum Leader." Ph.D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1972. Categorizes behaviors of curriculum leader as purposing, monitoring, mediating, coordinating, and growing.

Daniel C. Link. "A Study of the Role of Personnel Responsible for Curriculum Development in the Local School Divisions in Virginia." Ph.D. dissertation. Charlottesville: University of Virginia, 1971. Reports actual and ideal involvement in the following work areas: planning, coordination, and evaluation of instructional program; personnel administration; in-service; instructional related services and activities.

Frederick William Luehe. "Functioning and Desired Roles of the Director of Curriculum." Ed.D. dissertation. Los Angeles: University of Southern California, 1973. Presents data from a survey of curriculum directors in state. Data consistent with many other dissertations in this area. Advocates line and staff responsibilities for curriculum director.

John Hayes MacNeil. "An Analysis of the Role and Function of the Director of Curriculum and Instruction Within the School System as Perceived by the Director and His Contact Groups." Ph.D. dissertation. Knoxville: University of Tennessee, 1973. Reports differences in role perceptions of curriculum supervisor among teachers, trainers, and employers. Role areas considered were supervision-administration, evaluation, preparation of curricular materials, personnel functions, curriculum development, enhancement of school-community relations, facilitation of research and evaluation, and provision of in-service training.

Leona Mirza. "Staff Perceptions of the Role of the Curriculum Director as a Decision-Maker in Elementary Schools." Ed.D. dissertation. Kalamazoo: Western Michigan University, 1972. Investigates decision making and influence in relationship to other staff roles. Notes differences

between results from the questionnaire and data reported in literature a decade earlier.

James Dennis Moore. "An Examination of the Functions, Activities, and Areas of Competence of the Chief Instructional Leader in Selected School Systems." Ed.D. dissertation. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1973. Uses self-administered questionnaire to determine responsibilities and competencies. High agreement among respondents, but scope of study too narrow to generalize.

Richard Louis Petersohn. "The Development of a Framework and an Instrument for Analysis of Supervision of Curriculum Development." Ed.D. dissertation. Athens: University of Georgia, 1974. Provides an instrument of 75 statements describing supervisory behaviors, combining processes, skills, and subtasks, which facilitate the major tasks of curriculum development. A jury of 60 experts from across the country responded to the semantic differential instrument with a six-point preference scale.

Louis R. Pucci. "A Study of the Role of the Curriculum Supervisor." Ph.D. dissertation. New York University, 1973. Combines statements from the literature into a composite role profile of curriculum supervisor. The questionnaire derived from this profile was administered to various levels of educators. Perceptions of superintendents and teachers were generally consistent with those of incumbents.

Teacher Corps Association Program. *Curriculum Specialist's Role in Enabling Interns To Acquire and Demonstrate Mastery of Teaching Competencies.* Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1973. Specifies the curriculum specialist's role in the Competency-Based Teacher Education Program. Includes objectives, tests, and activities.

William Everett White. "The Role of the Assistant Superintendent in Curriculum Improvement." Ph.D. dissertation. Lawrence: University of Kansas, 1971. Reports that respondent groups to questionnaire concerning curriculum-related duties of assistant superintendents were assistant superintendents, superintendents, and board presidents. Twenty-nine of the fifty-eight items were rated at the same level of importance by all groups. Some areas of role conflict reported along with confusion as to desirability of line or staff officer status for assistant superintendent.

Bob G. Woods. "The Doctoral Program for Specialists in Curriculum and Instruction in Designing Doctoral Programs in Education." John P. Noonnan and James D. McComas, editors. Bethesda, Maryland: ERIC Document Reproductive Service ED 055 031, 1968. Recommends changes in curriculum, institutional facilities, faculty, and organizational structure of doctoral program. Presents questionnaire data used in Winter 1971 article in *Journal of Teacher Education.*

Allen Frank Zondlak. "Perceptions of the Role of the Curricular Leader in Model Neighborhood Elementary Schools of Detroit." Ph.D. dissertation. Detroit: Wayne State University, 1971. Presents data from principals, curricular leaders, teachers, and paraprofessionals. Recommends the following areas of emphasis for curricular leaders: school interpersonal relations; staff, student, and community involvement; intraschool curriculum development; in-service.

Appendix

1. What is your position title? _____

2. How many years have you been in your present position? _____

3. How many years has the position existed? _____

4. If your curriculum responsibility does not include all areas and grade levels, indicate the area for which you have responsibility:

5. Place a check by the areas which are part of your work.

   a. ___Budget
   b. ___Community relations
   c. ___Developing standards
   d. ___Federal programs
   e. ___Inservice programs
   f. ___Program evaluations
   g. ___Staff meetings
   h. ___Summer programs
   i. ___Teacher evaluation
   j. ___Teacher negotiations
   k. ___Teacher supervision
   l. ___Testing
   m. ___Other: (specify)_____

6. What is the title of the person to whom you report? _____

7. How many years have you been in the district where you are presently employed? _____

8. What was the title of your previous position? _____

9. How many years have you been in education as a professional educator? _____

10. Do you aspire to another position in education? Yes____ No____
    If yes, to what position? _____

11. Check the educational positions you have held and the number of years in each:

	Years		Years
___Teacher	_____	___Supervisory	_____
___Administrative	_____	___Other:	_____

12. What certification do you now hold? _____

13. Indicate the highest degree you hold. _____
    year received_____

14. In what field was your highest degree taken? e.g., administration, psychology, curriculum, mathematics, et al.

Encircle the numeral you think best applies to the statements below.

		Low						*High*
15.	Rate your competency to address the demands of curriculum work:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Rate your confidence to address the demands of curriculum work:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Rate the importance of the curriculum worker's role as perceived by the community:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Rate the importance of the curriculum worker's role as perceived by the Board of Education:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Rate the importance of the curriculum worker's role as perceived by the teachers:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Rate the importance of the curriculum worker's role as perceived by the superintendent:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. What was your most successful curriculum decision in the past 12 months?

22. What do you anticipate will be the most critical curriculum problem during the next five years?

23. Considering all aspects of your position, what kinds of tasks or issues tend to most *detract* from your productivity as a curriculum worker?

24. Other comments about curriculum.

Contributors

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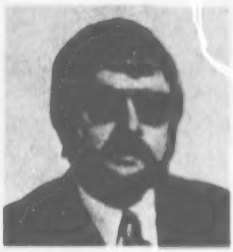

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For 22 years, VERONICA KOLLAR has been a teacher in grades 1-8 in Pennsylvania. She has been a laboratory school teacher for two years, one of which was on closed circuit television. She is listed in nine directories of outstanding persons in education, for example, the *International Scholars Directory* and the *Two Thousand Women of Achievement*. At present, she is assistant professor supervising student teachers K-12 at Slippery Rock State College in Pennsylvania.

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